I. C. J

ELEMENTS

OF

GEOMETRY,

GEOMETRICAL ANALYSIS,

AND

PLANE TRIGONOMETRY.

WITH AN

APPENDIX,

NOTES AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

BY

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1809.

PREFACE.

The volume now laid before the public, is the first of a projected Course of Mathematical Science. Many compendiums or elementary treatises have appeared—at different times, and of various merit; but there was still wanting in our language, a work that should embrace the subject in its full extent,—that should unite theory with practice, and connect the ancient with the modern discoveries. The magnitude and difficulty of such a task might deter an individual from the attempt, if he were not deeply impressed with the importance of the undertaking, and felt his exertions to accomplish it animated by zeal and supported by active perseverance.

The study of Mathematics holds forth two capital objects:—While it traces the beautiful rela-

tions of figure and quantity, it likewise accustoms the mind to the invaluable exercise of patient attention and accurate reasoning. Of these distinct objects, the last is perhaps the most important in a course of liberal education. For this purpose, the geometry of the Greeks is the most powerfully recommended, as bearing the stamp of that acute people, and displaying the finest specimens of logical deduction. Some of the propositions, indeed, might be reached by a sort of calculation; but such an artificial mode of procedure gives only an apparent facility, and leaves no clear or permanent impression on the mind.

We should form a wrong estimate, however, did we consider the Elements of Euclid, with all its merits, as a finished production. That admirable work was composed at the period when geometry was making its most rapid advances, and new prospects were opening on every side. No wonder that its structure should now seem loose and defective. In adapting it to the actual state of the science, I have therefore endeavoured carefully

to retain the spirit of the original, but have sought to enlarge the basis, and to dispose the accumulated materials into a regular and more compact system. By simplifying the order of arrangement, I hope to have considerably smoothed the toil of the student. The numerous additions which are incorporated in the text, so far from retarding, will rather facilitate his progress, by rendering more continuous the chain of demonstration. To multiply the steps of ascent, is in general the most expeditious mode of gaining a summit.

The view which I have given of the nature of Proportion, in the fifth Book, will, I flatter myself, be found to remove the chief difficulties attending that important subject. The sixth Book, which exhibits the application of the doctrine of ratios, contains a copious selection of propositions, not only beautiful in themselves, but that pave the way to the higher branches of Geometry, or lead immediately to valuable practical results. Yet the Appendix, without claiming the same degree of utility, will not be deemed the least interesting

portion of the volume, since the ingenious resources which it discovers are calculated to afford a very pleasing and instructive exercise.

The part which has cost me the greatest pains, is that devoted to Geometrical Analysis. The first Book consists of a series of the choicest problems, rising above each other in gradual succession. The second and third Books are almost wholly occupied with the researches of the Ancient Analysis. In framing them, I have consulted a great variety of authors, some of whom are of difficult access. The labour of condensing the scattered materials, will be duly estimated by those, who, taking delight in such fine speculations, are thus admitted at once to a rich and varied repast. The analytical investigations of the Greek geometers are indeed models of simplicity, clearness, and unrivalled elegance; and though miserably defaced by the riot of time and barbarism, they will yet be regarded by every person capable of appreciating their beauties, as some of the noblest monuments of human genius. It is matter of deep regret, that Algebra,

or the Modern Analysis, from the mechanical facility of its operations, has contributed, especially on the Continent, to vitiate the taste and destroy the proper relish for the strictness and purity so conspicuous in the ancient method of demonstration. The study of geometrical analysis appears admirably fitted to improve the intellect, by training it to habits of precision, arrangement, and close application. If the taste thus acquired be not allowed to obtain undue ascendancy, it may be transferred with eminent utility to Algebra, which, having shot up prematurely, wants reform in almost every department.

The Elements of Trigonometry are as ample as my plan would allow. I have explained fully the properties of the lines about the circle, and the calculation of the trigonometrical tables; nor have I omitted any proposition which has a distinct reference to practice. The last problem is of essential consequence in marine surveying.

Having already exceeded the ordinary limits, it perhaps unfortunately became requisite to curtail

the Notes and Illustrations, with which the volume concludes: Yet the more advanced student may peruse the few historical and critical remarks with considerable advantage. Some of the disquisitions, and the solutions of certain more difficult problems relative to trigonometry and geodesiacal operations, in which the modern analysis is sparingly introduced, are of a nature sufficiently interesting, I would presume, to claim the notice of proficients in science.

The printing of this Treatise has, owing to a combination of retarding circumstances, been attended with infinite trouble, vexation, and delay. The time consumed in urging the press would have been more agreeably employed in prosecuting physical inquiries, and fulfilling the engagements already contracted with the public. But, in making such a sacrifice, I should consider myself abundantly rewarded, if I could indulge the hope that my exertions may, in some degree, contribute to revive among us the passion for genuine science, which, at least in this northern part of the island, has been chilled by neglect, or suffered to languish

through want of direct incitement. Abstract pursuits will be found nowise unfriendly to the cultivation of elegant literature, or incompatible with the most vigorous play of imagination. When the connexion and mutual dependence of the several branches of knowledge are clearly understood, it may be expected that our academical institutions, happily released from the trammels of antiquated forms, will hasten to show their liberality, in extending to the mathematical studies the same protection which has hitherto been almost exclusively confined to the scholastic arrangements.

It is the nature of mathematical science to advance in continual progression. Each step carries it to others still higher. As its domain swells on the sight, new relations are descried, and the more distant objects seem gradually to approximate. But, while science thus enlarges its bounds, it likewise tends uniformly to simplicity and concentration. The discoveries of one age are, perhaps in the next, melted down into the mass of elementary truths. What are deemed at first merely objects of enlightened curiosity, become, in due time,

subservient to the most important interests. Theory soon descends to guide and assist the operations of practice. To the geometrical speculations of the Greeks, we may distinctly trace whatever progress the moderns have been enabled to achieve in mechanics, navigation, and the various complicated arts of life. A refined analysis has disclosed the harmony of the celestial motions, and conducted the philosopher, through a maze of intricate phænomena, to the great laws appointed for the government of the Universe.

College of Edinburgh,
Oct. 15. 1809.

'ABLE *of Correspondence between these Books of Geometry and the Elements of* Euclid.

y.	Euclid.	Geometry.	Euclid.	Geometry.	Euclid.
I.		BOOK II.		BOOK III.	
		Prop.		Prop.	
	I. 22.	1	I. 37.	1	——
	I. 1.	cor. 1.	I. 35.	2	——
	I. 8.	cor. 2.	I. 36.	3	——
	I. 4.	2	I. 38.	4	III. 2.
	I. 23.	3	I. 39.	5	III. 3.
	——	4	——	6	——
ol.	——	5	——	7	III. 15.
	I. 9.	6	——	8	III. 7.
1.	——	7	I. 41.	9	III. 8.
2.	I. 11.	8	I. 45.	cor.	III. 9.
	I. 12.	9	——	10	III. 10.
	I. 10.	10	I. 43.	11	——
	I. 5.	11	I. 44.	cor.	IV. 5.
	I. 6.	12	——	12	III. 14.
	I. 16.	13	——	13	III. 15.
	I. 17.	14	I. 47.	14	——
	——	15	I. 48.	15	III. 26.
	——	16	——	cor.	III. 29.
	I. 18.	17	——	16	III. 28.
	I. 19.	18	——	17	III. 30.
	I. 20.	19	——	18	III. 25.
	——	20	II. 1.	19	III. 20.
	——	21	II. 4.	20	III. 21.
	I. 21.	22	——	cor.	——
	I. 24.	23	——	21	III. 22.
	I. 25.	cor. 1.	II. 5.	cor.	——
	——	cor. 2.	II. 6.	22	——
	I. 26.	24	——	cor.	——
	——	25	——	23	——
	I. 27 & 28.	cor.	II. 9 & 10.	cor.	——
	I. 29.	26	II. 11.	24	——
	I. 31.	cor. 1.	——	25	——
	——	cor. 2.	——	26	III. 1.
	——	27	——	27	——
	I. 34.	cor.	——	28	III. 16.
	I. 33.	28	——	cor.	III. 19.
	——	29	——	29	III. 32.
	I. 30.	30	——	30	III. 17.
	——	cor.	——	31	III. 33.
	I. 32.	31	II. 13.	32	——
	——	cor.	——	33	——
	——	32	——	34	——
	I. 32. cor. 1.	33	——	35	——
	I. 32. cor. 2.	34	——	36	III. 35. & 36. c.
	——	35	——	cor.	III. 63.
	——			37	II. 14.
	——			38	——
	I. 46.			39	——
	——				

Geometry.	Euclid.
BOOK IV.	
Prop.	
1	—
2	—
3	IV. 10.
4	—
5	—
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7	—
8	—
9	—
10	IV. 4.
11	IV. 2.
12	IV. 3.
13	—
14	—
15	IV. 8 & 9.
16	IV. 6 & 7.
17	IV. 13 & 14.
18	IV. 11 & 12.
19	—
20	IV. 15.
21	—
22	—
23	XIII. 10.
cor. 1.	—
cor. 2.	—
24	IV. 16.

Geometry.	Euclid.
BOOK V.	
Prop.	
1	—
2	—
3	V. 15.
4	V. 14.
5	—
6	—
cor. 1.	—
cor. 2.	—
7	—
8	V. 16.
9	V. 18.
10	V. 17.
11	—
12	—
13	—
14	V. 25.
15	—
16	V. 22.
17	—
18	V. 23.
19	V. 12.
cor. 1.	—
cor. 2.	—
cor. 3.	—
20	V. 17.
21	—
cor. 1.	—
cor. 2.	—
22	—
23	—
cor.	—
24	—
cor. 1.	—
cor. 2.	VI. 1.
cor. 3.	VI. 16.
25	VII. 2. & X. 3.
26	—
27	—
28	X. 117.

Geometry.	
BOOK VI.	
Prop.	
1	—
cor. 1.	—
cor. 2.	—
2	—
cor. 1.	—
cor. 2.	—
3	V
cor.	V
4	V
5	V
inclusive to	—
11	V
12	—
13	V
cor.	—
14	V
—	V
15	V
16	V
17	—
cor. 1.	V
cor. 2.	—
18	—
19	—
inclusive to	—
29	—
cor. 1.	V
cor. 2.	V
30	V
31	V
Schol.	—
32	V
cor.	—
33	VI
34	VI
35 & cor.	VI
36	X
cor. 1.	—
cor. 2.	—
37	—
38	—
cor.	—
Schol.	—

TABLE *of Correspondence of the Elements of* EUCLID *with these Books of Geometry.*

d.	*Geometry.*	*Euclid.*	*Geometry.*	*Euclid.*	*Geometry.*
I.		BOOK II.		BOOK III.	
.		PROP.		PROP.	
	1. cor.	1	II. 20.	1	——
	——	2	——	2	III. 4
	——	3	——	3	III. 5
	I. 3	4	II. 21.	4	——
	I. 8	5	II. 23. cor. 1.	5	——
	I. 9	6	II. 23. cor. 2.	6	——
	——	7	——	7	III. 8. & cor.
	I. 2	8	——	8	III. 9
	I. 5	9	II. 25. cor.	9	III. 9. cor.
	I. 7	10	II. 25. cor.	10	III. 10
	I. 5. cor. 2.	11	II. 26	11	——
	I. 6	12	II. 31	12	——
	cor. to def. 4.	13	II. 31	13	——
	——	14	III. 37	14	III. 12
	cor. to def. 10.			15	III. 13
	I. 10			16	III. 28
	I. 11			17	III. 30
	I. 14			18	——
	I. 15			19	III. 28. cor.
	I. 16			20	III. 19
	I. 19			21	III. 20
	I. 1			22	III. 21
	I. 4			23	——
	I. 20			24	——
	I. 21			25	III. 18
	I. 23			26	III. 15
	I. 25			27	III. 15. cor.
	I. 25			28	III. 16
	I. 25. cor.			29	III. 15. cor.
	I. 32			30	III. 17
	I. 26			31	III. 26
	I. 34			32	III. 29
1.	I. 35			33	III. 31
2.	I. 36			34	——
	I. 28			35	III. 36
	I. 29			36	III. 36. cor. 2
	II. 1. cor.			cor.	III. 36
	II. 2. cor.			37	III. 38
	II. 1				
	II. 2				
	II. 3				
	II. 3				
	II. 7				
	——				
	II. 10				
	II. 11				
	II. 8				
	I. 39				
	II. 14				
	II. 15				

Euclid.	*Geometry.*	*Euclid.*	*Geometry.*	*Euclid.*	*Geom*
BOOK IV.		BOOK V.		BOOK VI.	
PROP.		PROP.		PROP.	
1	—	1	—	1	—
2	IV. 11	2	—	2	VI.
3	IV. 12	3	—	3	VI.
4	IV. 10	4	—	4	VI.
5	III. 11. cor.	5	—	5	VI.
6	IV. 16	6	—	6	VI.
7	IV. 16	7	—	7	VI.
8	IV. 15	8	—	8	VI.
9	IV. 15	9	—	9	—
10	IV. 3	10	—	10	VI.
11	IV. 18	11	—	11	VI.
12	IV. 18	12	V. 19	12	VI.
13	IV. 17	13	—	13	VI.
14	IV. 17	14	V. 4	14	—
15	IV. 20	15	V. 3	15	VI. 2
16	IV. 24	16	V. 8	16	—
		17	V. 20	17	—
		18	V. 9	18	VI.
		19	—	19	VI. 2
		20	—	20	VI.
		21	—	21	—
		22	V. 16	22	—
		23	V. 18	23	—
		24	—	24	—
		25	V. 14	25	VI.
				26	—
				27	—
				28	—
				29	—
				30	—
				31	VI.
				32	—
				33	VI. 35

ELEMENTS

OF

GEOMETRY.

GEOMETRY is that branch of natural science which treats of figured space.

Our knowledge respecting external objects is grounded entirely on the information received through the medium of the senses. The science of physics considers bodies as they actually exist, invested at once with all their various qualities, and endued with their peculiar affections. Its researches are hence directed by that refined species of observation which is termed Experiment. Geometry takes a more limited view, and, selecting only the generic property of magnitude, it can, from the extreme simplicity of its basis, safely pursue the most lengthened train of investigation, and arrive with perfect certainty at the remotest conclusion. It contemplates merely the forms which

bodies present, and the spaces which they occupy. Geometry is thus likewise founded on external observation; but such observation is so familiar and obvious, that the primary notions which it furnishes might seem intuitive, and have often been regarded as innate. That science is, therefore, supereminently distinguished by the luminous evidence which constantly attends every step of its march.

PRINCIPLES.

In contemplating an external object, we can, by successive acts of abstraction, reduce the complex idea which arises in the mind into others that are progressively simpler. *Body*, divested of its essential characters, presents the mere idea of *surface*; a surface, considered apart from its peculiar qualities, only exhibits *linear boundaries*; and a line, abstracting its continuity, leaves nothing in the imagination but the *points* which form its extremities. A solid is bounded by *surfaces*; a surface is circumscribed by *lines*; and a line is terminated by *points*. A point marks *position*; a line measures *distance*; and a surface represents *extension*. A line has only *length*; a surface has both *length* and *breadth*; and a solid combines all the three dimensions of *length*, *breadth*, and *thickness*.

The uniform description of a line which through its whole extent stretches in the same direction

gives the idea of a *straight* line. Hence, no more than one straight line can join two given points.

From our idea of the straight line is derived that of a *plane* surface, which, though more complex, has a like uniformity of character. A straight line joining any two points situated in a plane, lies wholly on the surface; and therefore planes admit, in every way, a mutual and perfect application.

Two points ascertain the position of a straight line; for the line may continue to turn about one of the points till it falls upon the other. But to determine the position of a plane, it requires *three* points; because a plane touching the straight line which joins two of the points, may be made to revolve, till it meets the third point.

The separation or opening of two straight lines at their point of intersection, constitutes an *angle.* If we obtain the idea of *distance,* or linear extent, from *progressive* motion, we derive that of *divergence,* or angular magnitude, from *revolving* motion.

GEOMETRY is divided into Plane and Solid; the former confining its views to the properties of space delineated on the same plane; the latter embracing the relations of different planes or surfaces, and of

the solids which these describe or terminate. In the following definitions, therefore, the points and lines are all considered as existing in the same plane.

BOOK I.

DEFINITIONS.

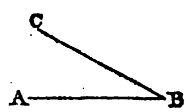
1. A *crooked* line is that which consists of straight lines not continued in the same direction.

2. A *curved* line is that of which no portion is a straight line.

3. The straight lines which contain an *angle* are termed its *sides*, and their point of origin or intersection, its *vertex*.

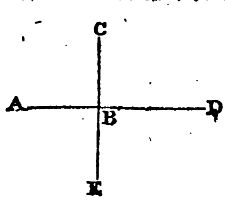
To abridge the reference, it is usual to denote an angle by tracing over its sides; the letter at the vertex, which is common to them both, being placed in the middle.

Thus the angle contained by the straight lines AB and BC, or the opening formed by the revolution of BA about the point B into the position BC, is named ABC or CBA.



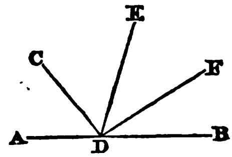
4. A *right angle* is the fourth part of an entire circuit or revolution.

If a straight line CB stand at equal angles CBA and CBD on another straight line AD, and if the surface ACD be laid over towards the opposite part, the point B and the line AD remaining the same; CB will, in this new position EB, make angles EBA and EBD equal to the former, and therefore all of them equal to each other. But the four angles ABC, CBD,



DBE and EBA constitute about the point D a complete revolution; or the line BA in forming them, by its successive openings, would return into its original place,—and consequently each of those angles is a *right angle.*

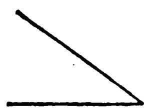
The angle contained by the opposite portions DA and DB of a straight line is hence equal to two right angles; and for the same reason, all the angles ADC, CDE, EDF and FDB, formed at the point D and on the same side of the straight line AB, are together equal to two right angles.



It is manifest that all right angles, being derived from the same measure, must be equal to each other.

5. The sides of a right angle are said to be *perpendicular* to each other.

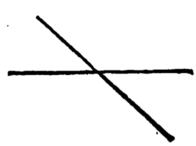
6. An *acute* angle is less than a right angle.



7. An *obtuse* angle is greater than a right angle.

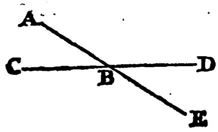
8. One side of an angle forms with the other produced a *supplemental* or *exterior angle.*

9. A *vertical* angle is formed by the production of both its sides.



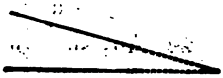
10. The retro-flected divergence of the two sides, or the defect of the angle from four right angles, is named a *reverse* angle.

The angle DBE is *vertical* to ABC, ABD is the *supplemental* or *exterior* angle, and the angle made up of ABD, DBE, and EBC, or the opening formed by the regression of AB through the points D and E into the position BC, is the *reverse* angle.

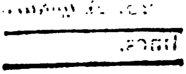


It is apparent that vertical angles, or those formed by the same lines in opposite directions, must be equal; for the angles CBA and ABD which stand on the straight line CD, being equal to two right angles, are equal to ABD and DBE, and omitting the common angle ABD, there remains CBA equal to DBE.

11. Two straight lines are said to be *inclined* to each other, if they meet when produced; and the angle so formed is called their *inclination*.



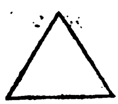
12. Straight lines which have no inclination are termed *parallel*.



13. A *figure* is a plane surface included by a linear boundary called its *perimeter*.

14. Of rectilineal figures, the *triangle* is contained by *three* straight lines.

15. An *equilateral* triangle is that which has all its sides equal.

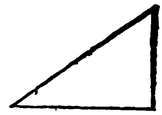


16. An *isosceles* triangle is that which has only two of its sides equal.

17. A triangle whose sides are unequal is named *scalene*.

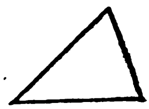
It will be shown (I. 12.) that every triangle has at least two acute angles. The third angle may, therefore, by its character serve to discriminate a triangle.

18. A *right-angled* triangle is that which has a right angle.



19. An *obtuse* angled triangle is that which has an obtuse angle.

20. An *acute* angled triangle is that which has *all* its angles acute.

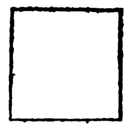


21. Two triangles which are both of them right angled, or obtuse, or acute, are said to have the same *affection*.

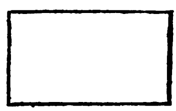
22. Any side of a triangle may be called its *base*, and the opposite angular point its *vertex*.

23. A *quadrilateral* figure is contained by *four* straight lines.

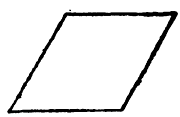
24. Of quadrilateral figures, a *square* has one right angle, and all its sides equal.



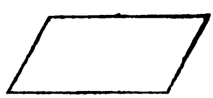
25. An *oblong* has one right angle, and its opposite sides equal.



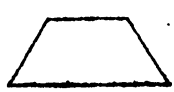
26. A *rhombus* has all its sides equal.

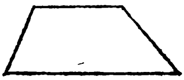


27. A *rhomboid* has its opposite sides equal.

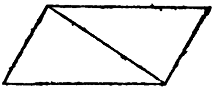


28. A *trapezium* has two of its sides parallel and the other two equal to each other.





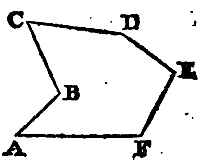
29. A *trapezoid* has two parallel sides.



30. The straight line which joins obliquely the opposite angular points of a quadrilateral figure, is named a *diagonal*.

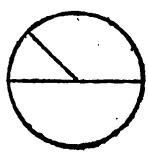
31. A rectilineal figure having more than four sides bears the general name of a *polygon*.

32. If an angle of a polygon be less than two right angles, it protrudes and is called *salient*; if it be greater than two right angles, it makes a sinuosity and is termed *re-entrant*.



Thus the angle ABC is re-entrant, and the rest of the angles of the polygon ABCDEF are salient at A, C, D, E and F.

33. A *circle* is a plane figure described by the revolution of a straight line about one of its extremities.



34. The fixed point is called the *centre* of the circle, the describing line its *radius*, and the boundary traced by the remote end of that line its *circumference*.

35. The *diameter* of a circle is a straight line drawn through the centre, and terminated both ways by the circumference.

It is obvious that all radii of the same circle are equal to each other and to a semidiameter.

36. Figures are said to be *equal*, when applied to each other they wholly coincide; they are *equivalent*, if without superposition they yet contain the same measure equally.

A PROPOSITION is a distinct undivided portion of abstract science. It is either a *problem* or a *theorem*.

A PROBLEM proposes to effect some combination.

A THEOREM advances some truth, which is to be established.

A *problem* requires *solution*, a *theorem* wants *demonstration*; the former implies an operation, and the latter generally needs a previous construction.

A *direct* demonstration proceeds from the premises by a regular deduction.

An *indirect* demonstration attains its object, by showing that any other hypothesis than the one advanced involves a contradiction, or leads to an absurd conclusion.

A subordinate property, involved in a demonstration, is sometimes, for the sake of unity, detached, and then it forms a LEMMA.

A COROLLARY is an obvious consequence that results from a proposition.

A SCHOLIUM is an excursive remark on the nature and application of a train of reasoning.

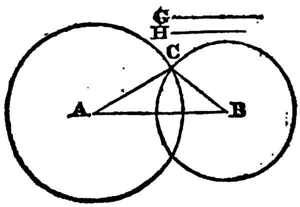
The operations in Geometry suppose the drawing of straight lines and the description of circles, or they require in practice the use of the rule and compasses.

PROPOSITION I. PROBLEM.

To construct a triangle, of which the three sides are given.

Let AB represent the base, and G, H two sides of the triangle, which it is required to construct.

From the centre A with the distance G describe a circle, and from the centre B with the distance H describe another circle meeting the former in the point C: ACB is the triangle required.



Because all the radii of the same circle are equal, AC is equal to G; and for the same reason, BC is equal to H. Consequently the triangle ACB answers the conditions of the problem.

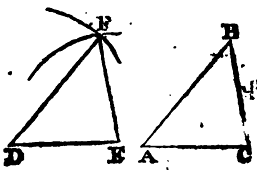
Corollary. If the radii G and H be equal to each other, the triangle will evidently be isosceles; and if those lines be likewise equal to the base AB, the triangle must be equilateral.

PROP. II. THEOREM.

Two triangles are equal, which have all the sides of the one equal to the corresponding sides of the other.

Let the two triangles ABC and DFE have the side AB equal to DF, AC to DE, and BC to FE: These triangles are equal.

For let the triangle ACB be applied to DEF, in the same position. The point A being laid on D, and the side AC on DE, their other extremities C and E must coincide, since AC is equal to DE. And because AB is equal to DF, the point B must be found in the circumference of a circle described from D, with the distance DF; and for the same reason, B must also be found in the circumference of a circle described from E, with the distance EF: The vertex of the triangle ACB must, therefore, occur in a point which is common to both those circles, or in F the vertex of the triangle DFE. Consequently those two triangles, being rectilineal, must entirely coincide. The angle CAB is equal to EDF, ACB to DEF, and CBA to EFD; the equal angles being thus always opposite to the equal sides.

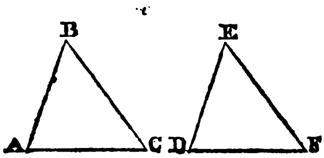


PROP. III. THEOR.

Two triangles are equal, if two sides and the angle contained by these in the one be respectively equal to two sides and the contained angle in the other.

Let ABC and DEF be two triangles, of which the side AB is equal to DE, the side BC to EF, and the angle ABC contained by the former equal to DEF which is contained by the latter: These triangles are equal.

For let the triangle ABC be applied to DEF: The vertex B being placed on E, and the side BA on ED, the extremity A must fall upon D, since AB is equal to DE. And because the angle or divergence ABC is equal to DEF, and the side AB coincides with DE, the other side BC must lie in the same direction with EF, and being of the same length, must en-



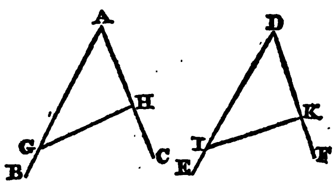
tirely coincide with it; and consequently the points A and C resting on D and F, the straight lines AC and DF will also coincide. Wherefore, the one triangle being thus perfectly adapted to the other, a general equality must obtain between them: The third sides AC and DF are equal, and the angles BAC, BCA opposite to BC and BA are equal respectively to EDF and EFD, which the corresponding sides EF and ED subtend.

PROP. IV. PROB.

At a point in a straight line, to make an angle equal to a given angle.

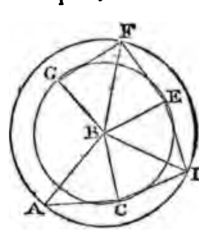
At the point D in the given straight line DE to form an angle equal to the given angle BAC.

In the sides AB and AC of the given angle, assume the points G and H, join GH, from DE cut off DI equal to AG, and on DI constitute (I. 1.) a triangle DKI, having the sides DK and IK equal to AH and GH: EDF is the angle required.



For all the sides of the triangles GAH and IDK being respectively equal, the angles opposite to the equal sides must be likewise equal (I. 2.), and consequently IDK is equal to GAH.

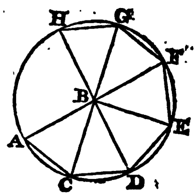
Cor. If the segments AG, AH be taken equal, the construction will be rendered simpler and more commodious.



Scholium. By the successive application of this problem, an angle may be continually multiplied. Two circles CEG and ADF being described from the vertex B of the given angle with radii BC and AB equal to its sides, and the base AC

being repeated between those circumferences; a multitude of triangles are thus formed, all of them equal to the original triangle ABC. Consequently the angle ABD is double of ABC, ABE triple, ABF quadruple, ABG quintuple, &c.

If the sides AB and BC of the given angle be supposed equal, only one circle will be required, a series of equal isosceles triangles being constituted about its centre. It is evident that this addition is without limit, and that the angle so produced may continue to swell, and its expanding side make repeated revolutions.

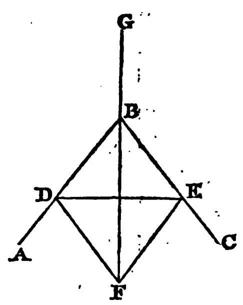


PROP. V. PROB.

To bisect a given angle.

Let ABC be an angle which it is required to bisect.

In the side AB take any point D, and from BC cut off BE equal to BD; join DE, on which construct the isosceles triangle DEF (I. 1.), and draw the straight line BF: The angle ABC is bisected by BF.

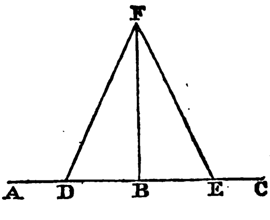


For the two triangles DBF and EBF, having the side DB equal to EB, the side DF to EF, and BF common to both, are (I. 2.) equal, and consequently the angle DBF is equal to EBF.

Cor. 1. It is evident that BG, the production of BF, divides the reversed angle ABC into two equal angles DBG and EBG.—The position of BG might also be determined, by the vertex of an isosceles triangle erected above DE and with sides greater than DB or EB.

Cor. 2. Hence the mode of drawing a perpendicular from a given point B in the straight line AC; for the an-

gle ABC which the opposite segments BA and BC make with each other being equal to two right angles, the straight line that bisects it must be the perpendicular required. Taking BD, therefore, equal to BE, and constructing the isosceles triangle DFE; the straight line BF which joins the vertex of the triangle is perpendicular to AC.

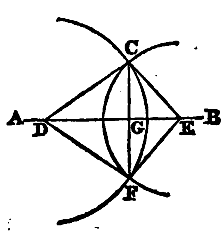


PROP. VI. PROB.

To let fall a perpendicular upon a straight line, from a given point without it.

From the point C to let fall a perpendicular upon a given straight line AB.

In AB take the point D, and with the distance DC describe a circle; and in the same line take another point E, and with distance EC describe a second circle intersecting the former in F; join CF, crossing the given line in G: CG is perpendicular to AB.

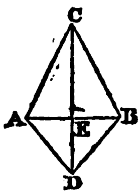


For the triangles DCE and DFE have the side DC equal to DF, CE to FE, and DE common to them both; whence (I. 2.) the angle CDE or CDG is equal to FDE or FDG. And because in the triangles DCG and DFG, the side DC is equal to DF, DG is common, and the contained angles CDG and FDG are proved to be equal; these triangles are (I. 3.) equal, and consequently the angle DGC is equal to DGF, and each of them a right angle, or CG is perpendicular to AB.

PROP. VII. PROB.

To bisect a given finite straight line.

On the given straight line AB construct two isosceles triangles (I. 1.) ACB and ADB, and join their vertices C and D by a straight line cutting AB in the point E: AB is bisected in E.

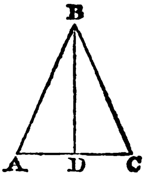


For the sides AC and AD of the triangle CAD being respectively equal to CB and BD of the triangle CBD, and the side CD common to them both; these triangles (I. 2.) are equal, and the angle ACD or ACE is equal to BCD or BCE. Again, the triangles ACE and BCE, having the side AC equal to BC, CE common, and the contained angle ACE equal to BCE, are (I. 3.) equal, and consequently the base AE is equal to BE.

PROP VIII. THEOR.

The angles at the base of an isosceles triangle are equal.

The angles BAC and BCA at the base of the isosceles triangle ABC are equal.



For draw (I. 5.) BD bisecting the vertical angle ABC.

Because AB is equal to BC, the side BD common to the two triangles BDA and BDC, and the angles ABD and CBD contained by them are equal; these triangles are equal (I. 3.) and consequently the angle BAD is equal to BCD.

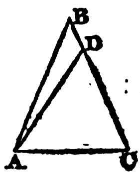
Cor. Every equilateral triangle is also equiangular.

PROP. IX. THEOR.

If two angles of a triangle be equal, the sides opposite to them are likewise equal.

Let the triangle ABC have two equal angles BCA and BAC; the opposite sides AB and BC are also equal.

For if AB be not equal to CB, let it be equal to the part CD, and join AD.



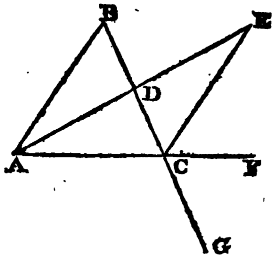
Comparing now the triangles BAC and DCA, the side AB is by supposition equal to CD, AC is common to both, and the contained angle BAC is equal to DCA; the two triangles (I. 3.) are, therefore, equal. But this conclusion is manifestly absurd. To suppose then the inequality of AB and BC, involves a contradiction; and consequently those sides must be equal.

Cor. Every equiangular triangle is also equilateral.

PROP. X. THEOR.

The exterior angle of a triangle is greater than either of the interior opposite angles.

The exterior angle BCF, formed by producing a side AC of the triangle ABC, is greater than either of the opposite and interior angles CAB and CBA.



For bisect the side BC in D (I. 7.), draw AD, and produce it until DE be equal to AD, and join EC.

The triangles ADB and CDE have by construction the side DA equal to DE, the side DB to DC, and the vertical angle BDA is equal to CDE (Def. 10.); these triangles are, therefore,

equal (I. 3.), and the angle DCE is equal to DBA. But the angle BCF is evidently greater than DCE, it is consequently greater than DBA or ABC.

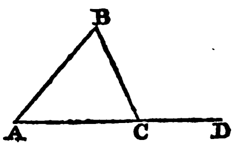
In like manner, it may be shown, that if BC be produced, the exterior angle ACG is greater than CAB. But ACG is equal to its vertical angle BCF (Def. 10.), and hence BCF must be greater than either the angle CBA or CAB.

PROP. XI. THEOR.

Any two angles of a triangle are together less than two right angles.

The two angles BAC and BCA of the triangle ABC are together less than two right angles.

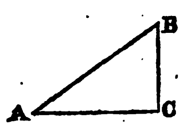
For produce the common side AC. And by the last proposition the exterior angle BCD is greater than CAB; add BCA to each, and the two angles BCD and BCA are greater than CAB and BCA, or CAB and BCA are together less than BCD and BCA, that is, less than two right angles (Def. 4).



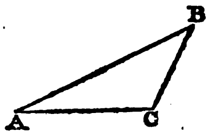
PROP. XII. THEOR.

Every triangle has two acute angles.

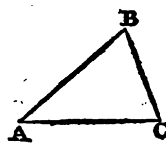
Let the triangle ABC have first a right angle at C. Then, by the last proposition, the angles ACB and CAB are less than two right angles, and so are the angles ACB and ABC. Consequently the angles CAB and CBA are each of them less than one right angle, or they are both acute.



Next let the triangle have an obtuse angle ACB. The angles ACB and CAB, being less than two right angles, and ACB being greater than one right angle, CAB must be much less than a right angle. And the angles ACB and ABC being also less than two right angles, ABC must be much less than one right angle. Consequently the angles CAB and CBA are both of them acute.



Lastly, let the triangle have the angle at C acute. If one of the remaining angles, such as BAC, be likewise acute, the two angles ACB and BAC are both of them acute. But if the angle BAC be either obtuse or a right angle, it comes under the two former cases, and the other angles ABC and ACB are, therefore, acute.

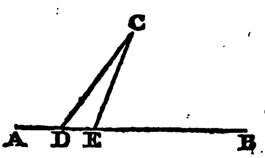


PROP. XIII. THEOR.

If from a point without a straight line, two other straight lines be drawn to meet it; the nearer one will form on the same side a greater angle than that which is more remote.

If straight lines CD, CE be drawn from the point C to the straight line AB; the angle ADC is greater than AEC.

For ADC is the exterior angle of the triangle DCE, and is consequently (I. 10.) greater than the opposite interior angle CED.



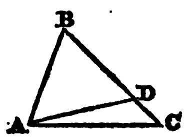
If the line CD be, therefore, supposed to turn about the point C in the direction of AB, the angle which it makes with the intercepted part of the line from A will continually diminish.

Cor. Hence from any point only one straight line can be drawn, making a given angle on the same side with a given straight line; and hence also no more than one perpendicular can be let fall from a given point upon a given straight line.

PROP. XIV. THEOR.

In a triangle, that angle is the greater which lies opposite to a greater side.

If a side BC of the triangle ABC be greater than BA; the opposite angle CAB is greater than BCA.

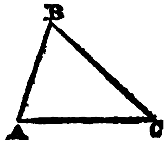


For make BD equal to BA, and join AD. The angle CAB is greater than DAB; but since BA is equal to BD, the angle DAB (I. 8.) is equal to ADB, and consequently CAB is greater than ADB. Again, the angle ADB, being an exterior angle of the triangle CAD, is (I. 10.) greater than ACD or ACB; wherefore the angle CAB is much greater than ACB.

PROP. XV. THEOR.

That side of a triangle is the greater which subtends a greater angle.

If in the triangle ABC, the angle CAB be greater than ACB; its opposite side BC is greater than AB.



For if BC be not greater than AB, it must be either equal or less. But it cannot be equal, because the angle CAB would then be equal to ACB (I. 8); nor can BC be less than AB, for then AB would be greater than BC, and consequently (I. 14.) the angle ACB would be greater than CAB, or CAB less than ACB,

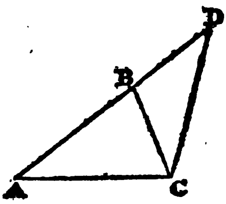
which is still more absurd. The side BC being thus neither equal to AB, nor less than it, must therefore be greater than AB.

PROP. XVI. THEOR.

Two sides of a triangle are together greater than the third side.

The two sides AB and BC of the triangle ABC are together greater than the third side AC.

For produce AB until DB be equal to the side BC, and join CD.

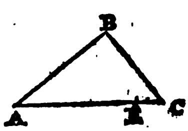


Because BC is equal to BD, the angle BCD is equal to BDC (I. 8.); but the angle ACD is greater than BCD, and therefore greater than BDC or ADC; consequently the opposite side AD is greater than AC (I. 15.); and since AD is equal to AB and BD or to AB and BC, the two sides AB and BC are together greater than the third AC.

PROP. XVII. THEOR.

The difference between two sides of a triangle is less than the third side.

Let the side AC be greater than AB, and from it cut off a part AE equal to AB; the remainder EC is less than the third side BC.

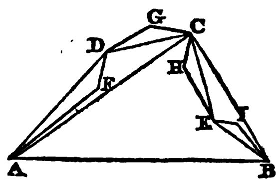


For the two sides AB and BC are together greater than AC (I. 16.); take away the equal lines AB and AE, and there remains BC greater than EC, or EC is less than BC.

PROP. XVIII. THEOR.

The shortest line that can be drawn between two given points, is a straight line.

Let the points A and B be connected by straight lines joining an intermediate point C; and the two sides AC and BC of the triangle ACB are greater than AB (I. 16.) Now let a third point D be interposed between A and C; and because AD and DC are together greater than AC, add BC to both, and the three lines AD, DC, and CB are greater than AC and BC, and consequently much greater than AB. Again suppose a fourth point E to connect B with C; and the sides BE and CE of the triangle BCE being greater than BC, the four straight lines AD, DC, CE, and EB are together trebly greater than AB. By thus repeatedly multiplying the interjacent points, two sides of a triangle will at each successive step come in place of a third side, and consequently the aggregate polygonal or crooked line AFDGCHEIB will acquire continually some farther extension. Nay, since there is no limit to the possible number of those connecting points, they may approach each other nearer than any assignable interval; and consequently the proposition is also true in that extreme case where the boundary is a curve line, or of which no portion can be deemed rectilineal.

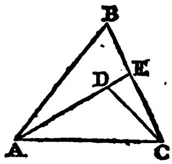


PROP. XIX. THEOR.

Two straight lines drawn to a point within a triangle from the extremities of its base, are together less than the sides of the triangle, but contain a greater angle.

The straight lines AD and CD, projected to a point D within the triangle ADC from the extremities of the base AC, are together less than the sides AB and CB of the triangle, but contain a greater angle.

For produce AD to meet CB in E. The two sides AB and BE of the triangle ABE are greater than the third side AE (I. 16.); add EC to each, and AB, BE, EC, or AB and BC, are greater than AE and EC. But the sides CE and ED of the triangle DEC are (I. 16.) greater than DC, and consequently CE, ED, together with DA, or CE and EA, are greater than CD and DA. Wherefore the sides AB and BC, being greater than AE and EC, which are themselves greater than AD and DC, must be much greater than AD and DC, or the lines AD and DC are much less than AB and BC the sides of the triangle.



Again, the angle ADC, being the exterior angle of the triangle DCE, is greater than DEC (I. 10.); and for the same reason, DEC is greater than ABE, the opposite interior angle of the triangle EAB. Consequently ADC is much greater than ABE or ABC.

PROP. XX. THEOR.

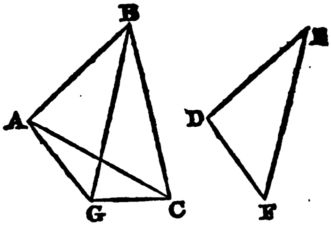
If two sides of one triangle be respectively equal to those of another, but contain a greater angle; the base also of the former will be greater than that of the latter.

In the triangles ABC and DEF, let the sides AB and BC be equal to DE and EF, but the angle ABC greater than DEF; then is the base AC greater than DF.

For draw BG equal to EF and making an angle ABG equal to DEF (I. 4.), join AG and GC.

Because AB and BG are equal to DE and EF, and the contained angle ABG is equal to DEF; the triangles ABG

and DEF (I. 3.) are equal, and have equal bases AG and DF. But BG, being made equal to EF or BC, the triangle GBC is isosceles, and its angles BGC and BCG (I. 8.) are equal. Consequently the angle AGC, being greater than BGC or BCG, which is greater than ACG, must be much greater than ACG; and therefore the opposite side AC is (I. 15.) greater than AG or DF.

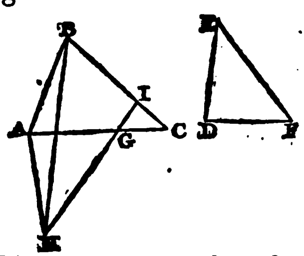


PROP. XXI. THEOR.

If two sides of one triangle be respectively equal to those of another, but stand on a greater base; the angle contained by the former will be likewise greater than what is contained by the latter.

Let the triangles ABC and DEF have the sides AB and BC equal to DE and EF, but the base AC greater than DF; the vertical angle ABC is greater than DEF.

From AC cut off AG equal to DF, construct (I. 1.) the triangle AHG having the sides AH and GH equal to AB and BC or DE and EF, join HB, and produce HG to meet BC in I.



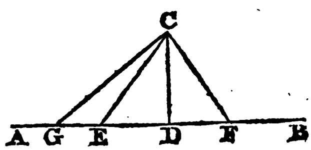
Because HI is greater than HG, it is greater than the equal side BC, and therefore much greater than BI. Consequently the opposite angle IBH of the triangle BIH is (I. 14.) greater than BHI. But AB being equal to AH the angle HBA is (I. 8.) equal to BHA, and therefore the two angles IBH and HBA are greater than IHB and BHA, that is, the whole angle CBA is greater than IHA

or GHA. And since the sides of the triangle AGH are by construction equal to those of EDF, the corresponding angle AHG is equal to DEF (I. 2.); and hence the angle ABC, which is greater than AHG, is likewise greater than DEF.

PROP. XXII. THEOR.

If straight lines be drawn from the same point to another straight line, the perpendicular is the shortest of them all; the lines equidistant from it on both sides are equal; and those more remote are greater than such as are nearer.

If the straight lines CG, CE, CD, and CF drawn from a given point C to the straight line AB, the perpendicular CD is the least, the equidistant lines CE and CF are equal, but the remoter line CG is greater than either of these two.



For the angle CDE, which is equal to CDF, is (I. 13.) greater than CFD, and consequently the opposite side CF is (I. 15.) greater than CD, or CD is less than CE.

But a straight line drawn of a determinate length from C to AB, may have two positious; for if the line CE be supposed to turn about the point C, the angle CEA will continually decrease (I. 13.), till, passing from obtuse to acute, it becomes equal to CEF, and then forms (I. 9.) the isosceles triangle ECF.—Because ED is by hypothesis equal to FD, CD common to the two triangles ECD and FCD, and the contained angles CDE and CDF equal; these triangles (I. 3.) are equal, and consequently their bases CE and CF are equal.

Again, because GCD is a right angled triangle, the angle CGD or CGE is acute (I. 12.), and for the same rea-

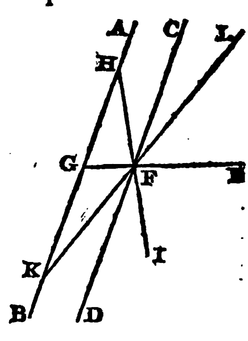
angle at F be either obtuse or acute, the line EF, which forms it, can have only one corresponding position.—Whence, in each of these three cases, the triangle ABC admits of a perfect adaptation with DEF.

PROP. XXV. THEOR.

If a straight line fall upon two parallel straight lines, it will make the alternate angles equal, the exterior angle equal to the interior opposite one, and the two interior angles on the same side together equal to two right angles.

Let the straight line EFG fall upon the parallels AB and CD; the alternate angles AGF and DFG are equal, the exterior angle EFC is equal to the interior angle EGA, and the interior angles CFG and AGF are together equal to two right angles.

For suppose the straight line EFG, produced both ways from F to turn about that point in the direction BA; it will first cut the extended line AB towards A, and will in its progress afterwards meet the same line on the other side towards B. In the position IFH, the angle EFH is the exterior angle of the triangle FHG, and therefore greater than FGH or EGA (I. 10.) But in the last position LFK, the exterior angle EFL is equal to its vertical angle GFK in the triangle FKG, and to which the angle FGA is exterior; consequently (I. 10.) FGA is greater than EFL, or the angle EFL is less than FGA or EGA. When the incident line EFG, therefore, meets AB above the point G, it makes an angle EFH *greater* than EGA; and when it meets AB below that point, it makes an angle EFL, which is *less* than the same angle. But in passing through all the de-



grees from greater to less, a varying magnitude must evidently rencounter, as it proceeds, the single intermediate limit of equality. Wherefore, there is a certain position, CD, in which the line revolving about the point F makes the exterior angle EFC *equal* to the interior EGA, and at the same time meets AB neither towards the one part nor the other, or is parallel to it.

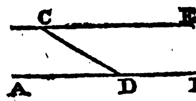
And now, since EFC is proved to be equal to EGA, and is also equal to the vertical angle GFD; the alternate angles FGA and GFD are equal. Again, because GFD and FGA are equal, add the angle FGB to each, and the two angles GFD and FGB are equal to FGA and FGB; but the angles FGA and FGB, on the same side of AB, are equal to two right angles, and consequently the interior angles GFD and FGB are likewise equal to two right angles.

Cor. Since the position CD is individual, or that only *one* straight line can be drawn through the point F parallel to AB, it follows that the converse of the proposition is true, and that those three properties of parallel lines are also the criteria for distinguishing parallels.

PROP. XXVI. PROB.

Through a given point, to draw a straight line parallel to a given straight line.

To draw, through the point C, a straight line parallel to AB.



In AB take any point D, join CD, and at the point C make (I. 4.) an angle DCE equal to CDA; CE is parallel to AB.

For the angles CDA and DCE, thus formed equal, are the alternate angles which CD makes with the straight

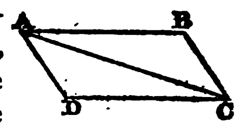
is a rectangular parallelogram; for if the angle at A be right, the opposite angle at C is right, and the remaining angles at B and D, being equal to each other and to two right angles, must be right angled.

PROP. XXX. THEOR.

If the parallel sides of a trapezoid be equal, the other sides are likewise equal and parallel.

Let the sides AB and DC be equal and parallel; the sides AD and BC are themselves equal and parallel.

For join AC. Because AB is parallel to CD, the alternate angles CAB and ACD are (I. 25.) equal; and the triangles ABC and ADC, having the side AB equal to CD, AC common to both, and the contained angle CAB equal to ACD, are, therefore, equal (I. 3.) Whence the side BC is equal to AD, and the angle ACB equal to CAD; but these angles being alternate, BC must also be parallel to AD (Cor. I. 25.)

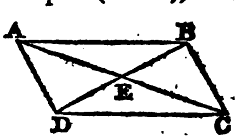


PROP. XXXI. THEOR.

The diagonals of a rhomboid mutually bisect each other.

If the diagonals of the rhomboid ABCD intersect each other in E; the part AE is equal to CE, and DE to BE.

For because a rhomboid is also a parallelogram (I. 28.), the alternate angles BAC and ACD are equal (I. 25.), and likewise ABD and BDC. The triangles AEB and CED, having thus the angles BAE, ABE respectively equal to DCE and CED, and the interjacent sides AB and CD equal, are (I. 23.) wholly equal.



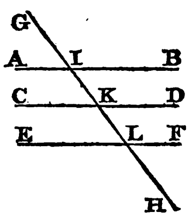
Wherefore AE is equal to the corresponding side CE, and BE to DE.

Cor. Hence the diagonals of a rectangle are equal to each other; for if the angles at A and B were right angles, the triangles DAB and CBA would be equal (I. 3.) and consequently the base DB equal to AC.

PROP. XXXII. THEOR.

Lines parallel to the same straight line, are parallel to each other.

If the straight line AB be parallel to CD, and CD parallel to EF; then is AB parallel to EF.

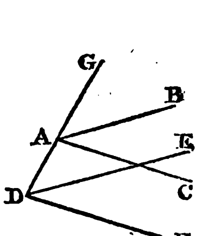


For let the straight line GH cut these lines.

Because AB is parallel to CD, the exterior angle GIA is equal (I. 25.) to the interior GKC; and since CD is parallel to EF, this angle GKC is, for the same reason, equal to GLE. Therefore GIA is equal to GLE, and consequently AB is parallel to EF (I. 25. Cor.)

PROP XXXIII. THEOR.

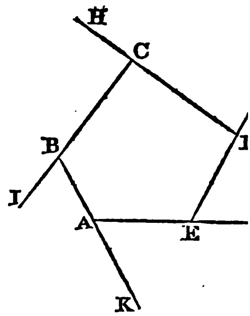
Straight lines drawn parallel to the sides of an angle, contain an equal angle.



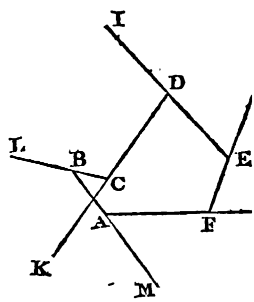
If the straight lines AB, AC be parallel to DE, DF; the angle BAC is equal to EDF.

For draw the straight line GAD through the vertices. And because AC is parallel to DF, the exterior angle GAC is (I. 25.) equal to GDF; and for the same reason, GAB is equal to GDE; there consequently remains the angle BAC equal to EDF.

For each exterior angle DEF, with its adjacent i rior one AED, is equal to two right angles. All the exterior angles therefore, added to the interior angles, are equal to twice as many right angles as the figure has sides. Consequently the exterior angles are equal to the four right angles which, by the last Proposition, were abated, to form the aggregate of the interior angles.



Cor. If the figure has a re-entrant angle BCD, the a BCK which occurs in place of an exterior angle, must be taken away in forming the amount; for the corresponding interior angle BCD, in this case, exceeds two right angles by BCK. Hence the angles EFG, DEH, CDI, ABL, FAM diminished by BCK are equal to four right angles.

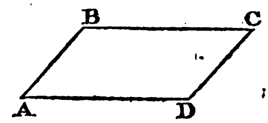


PROP. XXXVII. THEOR.

If the opposite angles of a quadrilateral figure equal, its opposite sides will be likewise equal parallel.

In the quadrilateral figure ABCD, let the angle at B equal to the opposite one at D, and the angle at A e to that at C; the sides AB, BC are equal and paralle DC and DA.

For all the angles of the figure being equal to four right angles, (I. 34. cor.) and the opposite angles being mutually equal, each pair of adjacent angles must be equal to two right angles. Wherefore ABC and BCD are equal to two right angles, and the lines AB and CD (Cor. I. 25.) parallel; for the same reason, ABC and BAD being together equal to two right angles, the sides BC and AD, which limit them, are parallel.



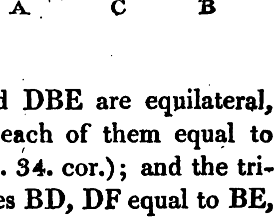
Cor. Hence a rectangle, or right-angled quadrilateral figure, has its opposite sides equal and parallel.

PROP. XXXVIII. PROB.

To draw a perpendicular from the extremity of a given straight line.

From the point B, to draw a perpendicular to AB, without producing that line.

In AB take any point C, and on BC (I. 1. cor.) describe an equilateral triangle CDB, on its side DB, another DEB; and on DE the side of this, a third equilateral triangle DFE; join the last vertex F with the point B; and BF is the perpendicular required.



Because the triangles CDB and DBE are equilateral, the angles CBD and DBE are each of them equal to two third parts of a right angle (I. 34. cor.); and the triangles BDF, BEF, having the sides BD, DF equal to BE, EF, and the side BF common, are (I. 2.) equal, and con-

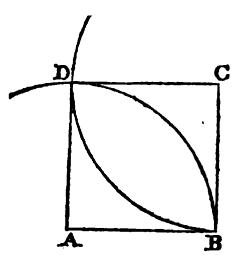
sequently the angles FBD and FBE are equal, and each of them the half of DBE. The angle FBD, being therefore one third part of a right angle, and the angle DBA two third parts, the whole angle FBC must be an entire right angle, or the straight line BF is perpendicular to AB.

PROP. XXXIX. PROB.

On a given finite straight line to construct a square.

Let AB be the side of the square which it is required to construct.

From the extremity B draw (I. 38.) BC perpendicular to BA and equal to it, and from the points A and C with the distance BA or BC describe two circles intersecting each other in the point D, join AD and CD; the quadrilateral figure ABCD is the square required.



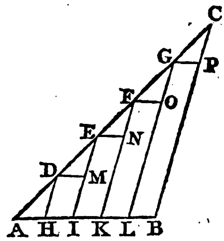
For, by this construction, the figure has all its sides equal, and one of its angles ABC a right angle; which comprehends the whole of the definition of a square.

PROP. XL. PROB.

To divide a given straight line into any number of equal parts.

Let it be required to divide the straight line AB into a given number of equal parts, suppose five.

From the point A and at any oblique angle with AB draw a straight line AC in which take the portion AD, and repeat it five times from A to C, join CB, and from the several points of section D, E, F, and G draw the parallels DH, EI, FK, and GL, (I. 26.) cutting AB in H, I, K, and L: AB is divided in these points into five equal parts.



For draw DM, EN, FO, and GP parallel to AB. And because DH is parallel to EM, the exterior angle ADH is equal to DEM (I. 25.); and for the same reason, since AH is parallel to DM, the angle DAH is equal to EDM. Wherefore the triangles ADH and DEM, having two angles respectively equal, and the interjacent sides AD, DE, are (I. 23.) equal, and consequently AH is equal to DM. In the same manner, the triangle ADH is proved to be equal to EFN, FGO, and GCP, and therefore their bases EN, FO, and GP are all equal to AH. But these lines are equal to HI, IK, KL, and LB, for the opposite sides of parallelograms are equal (I. 29.). Wherefore the several segments AH, HI, IK, KL, and LB, into which the straight line AB is divided, are all equal to each other.

ELEMENTS

OF

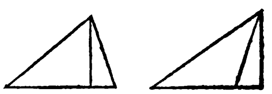
GEOMETRY.

BOOK II.

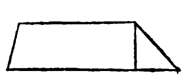
DEFINITIONS.

1. In a right-angled triangle, the side that subtends the right angle is termed the *hypotenuse*; either of the sides which contain it, the *base*; and the other side, the *perpendicular*.

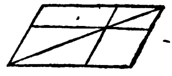
2. The *altitude* of a triangle is a perpendicular let fall from its vertex upon the extension of its base.



3. The *altitude* of a trapezoid is the perpendicular drawn from one of its parallel sides to the other.



4. The complements of rhomboids about the diagonal of a rhomboid, annexed to either of them, forms what is termed a *gnomon*.



5. A rhomboid or rectangle is said to be *contained* by any two adjacent sides.

The same mode of demonstration, it is obvious, will apply in the case where the equivalent triangles stand on equal bases.

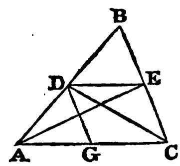
Cor. Hence equivalent rhomboids on the same or equal bases, have the same altitude.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

A straight line bisecting two sides of a triangle, is parallel to the base.

The straight line DE, which joins the middle points of the sides AB, BC, is parallel to the base AC of the triangle ABC.

For join AE and CD. Because the triangles ACD, BCD stand on equal bases AD, DB, and have the same vertex or altitude, they are (II. 2.) equivalent, and, therefore, ACD is half of the whole triangle ABC. For the same reason, since CE is equal to EB, the triangle CAE is equivalent to EAB, and is consequently half of the whole triangle ABC. Whence the triangles ADC and AEC are equal; and they stand on the same base, and have, therefore, the same altitude (II. 3.), or DE is parallel to AC.

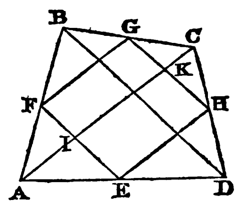


Cor. Hence the triangle DBE cut off by the line DE is the fourth part of the original triangle. For bisect AC in G, and join DG, which is, therefore, parallel to BC. The triangle ADG is equivalent to GDC (II. 2.), and GDC, being the half of the rhomboid GE, is equivalent to DEC, which again is (II. 2.) equivalent to DEB. The triangle ABC is thus divided into four equivalent triangles, of which DBE is one. Hence also the rhomboid GDEC is half of the original triangle.

PROP. V. THEOR.

Straight lines joining the successive middle points of the sides of a quadrilateral figure, form a rhomboid.

If the sides of the quadrilateral figure ABCD be bisected and the points of section joined in their order; EFGH is a rhomboid.



For draw AC, BD. And because FG bisects AB, BC, it is, by the last Proposition, parallel to AC; and for the same reason, EH, as it bisects AD and DC, is parallel to AC. Wherefore FG is parallel to EH (I. 32.). In like manner, it is proved that EF is parallel to HG; and consequently the figure EFGH is a rhomboid or parallelogram.

Cor. Hence the inscribed rhomboid is half of the quadrilateral figure. For IG is half of the triangle ABC (II. 4. cor.), and IH is half of the triangle ADC. Consequently the rhomboid EG is half of the whole quadrilateral figure ABCD.

PROP. VI. PROB.

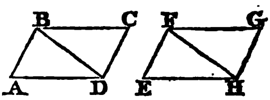
To find a triangle equivalent to any rectilineal figure.

Let it be required to reduce the five-sided figure ABCD to a triangle, or to find a triangle that shall contain an equal space.

Join any two alternate points A, C, and through the intermediate point B, draw BF parallel to AC, and meeting either of the adjoining sides AE or CD in F; which point,

Let the rhomboids BD and FH have the angle BAD equal to FEH and the containing sides AB and AD equal respectively to FE and EH; these rhomboids are equal.

For if the rhomboid BD be applied to FH, the angle BAD will adapt to FEH, and its sides being equal, the points B and D must coincide with F and H, consequently the diagonal BD will coincide with FH. Whence the two triangles BCD and FGH, having all their sides respectively equal, must also fit with each other.



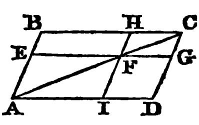
Cor. Hence the squares of equal straight lines are equal, and conversely equal squares have equal bases.

PROP. X. THEOR.

The complements of the rhomboids about the diagonal of a rhomboid, are equivalent.

Let EI and HG be rhomboids about the diagonal of the rhomboid BD; their complements BF and FD contain equal spaces.

Since the diagonal AF bisects the rhomboid EI (I. 29. cor.), the triangle AEF is equivalent to AIF; and for the same reason, the triangle FHC is equivalent to FGC. From the whole triangle ABC on the one side of the diagonal, take away the two triangles AEF and FHC; and from the triangle ADC, which is equal to it, take away, on the other side, the two triangles AFI and FGC, and there remains the rhomboid BE equivalent to FD.



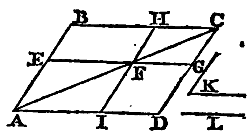
PROP. XI. PROB.

With a given straight line to construct a rhom-

boid equivalent to a given rectilineal figure, and having its angle equal to a given angle.

Let it be required to construct, with the straight line L, a rhomboid, containing a given space, and having an angle equal to K.

Construct (II. 7.) the rhomboid BF equivalent to the rectilineal figure, and having an angle BEF equal to K; produce EF until FG be equal to L, through G draw DGC parallel to EB and meeting the production of BH in C, join CF and produce it to meet the production of BE in A; draw AD parallel to EF, meeting CG in D, and produce HF to I: FD is the rhomboid required.



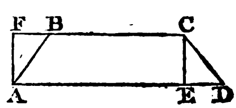
For FD and FB are evidently complementary rhomboids, and therefore (II. 9.) equivalent; and by reason of the parallels AE, IF, the angle FID is equal to EAI (I. 34.), which again is equal to BEF or the given angle K.

PROP. XII. THEOR.

A trapezium is equivalent to the rectangle contained by its altitude and the part of the base cut off by a perpendicular from its remoter summit.

Let ABCD be a trapezium, and CE a perpendicular drawn from C to the base AD; the trapezium is equal to the rectangle contained by AE and CE.

For complete the rectangle EF. The triangles ABF and CDE have, from the definition of the trapezium, the side AB equal to CD, AF to CE, and the right angle AFB equal to CED; wherefore these triangles, being also of the same affection, are



equal (I. 24.). To each of them, add the quadrilateral space ABCE, and the rectangle AFCE is equal to the trapezium ABCD.

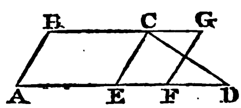
PROP. XIII. THEOR.

A trapezoid is equivalent to the rectangle contained by its altitude and half the sum of its parallel sides.

The trapezoid ABCD is equivalent to the rectangle contained by its altitude and half the sum of the parallel sides BC and AD.

For draw CE parallel to AB (I. 26.), bisect ED (I. 7.) in F, and draw FG parallel to AB, meeting the production of BC in G.

Because BC is equal to AE (I. 29.), BC and AD are together equal to AE and AD, or to twice AE and ED, or to twice AE and twice EF, that is, to twice AF; consequently AF is half the sum of BC and AD. Wherefore the rectangle contained by the altitude of the trapezoid and half the sum of its parallel sides, is equivalent to the rhomboid BF (II. 1. cor.); but the rhomboid EG is equivalent to the triangle ECD (II. 7.), add to each the rhomboid BE, and the rhomboid BF is equivalent to the trapezoid ABCD.



Cor. Hence the greater of two lines is equal to half their sum and half their difference; for AD is equal to AF joined to FD, which is half the difference ED. The smaller line AE again is formed by taking half the difference from half the sum.

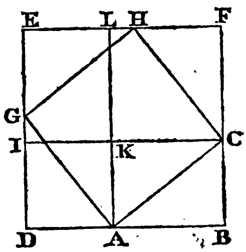
PROP. XIV. THEOR.

The square described on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, is equivalent to the squares of the two sides.

Let ACB be a triangle which is right-angled at B; the square of the hypotenuse AC is equivalent to the two squares of AB and BC.

For produce the base BA until AD be equal to the perpendicular BC, and on DB describe (I. 39.) the square DEFB, make GE and FH equal to AD or BC, join AG, GH, and HC, and through the points A and C (I. 26.) draw AL and CI parallel to BF and BD.

Because the whole line BD is equal to DE, and a part of it AD equal to GE, the remainder AB is equal to DG; wherefore the triangles ACB and AGD are equal (I. 3.), since they have the sides AB, BC equal to DG, AD, and the contained angle ABC equal to ADG, both of these being right angles. In the same manner, it is proved, that the triangle ACB is equal to GEH, and to HFC. Consequently the sides AC, AG, GH, and HC are all equal. But the angle CAB, being equal to AGD, is equal to the alternate angle GAL (I. 29.); add LAC to each, and the whole angle LAB or EDB (I. 29.) is equal to GAC, which is, therefore, a right angle. Hence the figure AGHC, having all its sides equal and one angle right, is a square.



Again, the parallelograms KB and KE are evidently rectangular; they are also equal, being contained by equal sides; and each of them being double of the original tri-

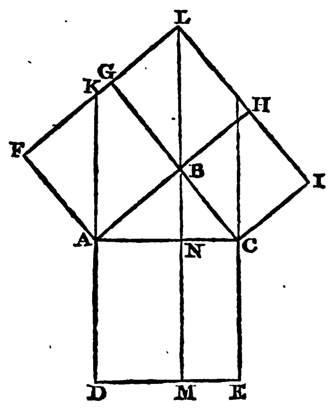
angle ACB, they are together equal to the four triangles ACB, AGD, EHG, and HCF. The other inscribed figures LC and IA are obviously the squares of KC and AD, which are equal to the base and perpendicular of the triangle ABC. From the whole square DEFB, therefore, take away separately those four encompassing triangles, and the two interjacent rectangles KB and KE, and the remainders must be equal; that is the square AGHC is equal in space to both the squares ADIK and KLFC.

Otherwise thus.

Let the triangle ABC be right-angled at B; the square described on the hypotenuse AC is equivalent to BF and BI the squares of the sides AB and BC.

For produce DA to K, and through B draw MBL parallel to DA (I. 26.) and meeting FG produced in L.

Because the angle CAK, adjacent to CAD, is a right angle, it is equal to BAF; from each take away the angle BAK, and there remains the angle BAC equal to FAK. But the angle ABC is equal to AFK, both being right angles. Wherefore the triangles ABC and AFK, having thus two angles of the one respectively equal to those of the other, and the interjacent side AF equal to AB, are equal (I. 23.), and consequently the side AC is equal to AK. Hence the rectangle or rhomboid AM



is equivalent to ABLK (II. 2. cor.), since they stand on equal bases AD and AK, and between the same parallels

DK and ML. But ABLK is equivalent to the square or rhomboid BF (II. 1. cor.), for it stands on the same base AB and between the same parallels FL and AH. Wherefore the rectangle AM is equivalent to the square of AB. And in like manner, by drawing MB to meet the production of HI, it may be proved, that the rectangle CM is equivalent to the square of BC. Consequently the whole square, ADEC, of the hypotenuse, contains the same space as both together of the squares described on the two sides AB and BC.

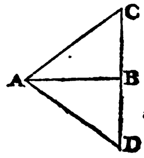
PROP. XV. THEOR.

If the square of a side of a triangle be equivalent to the squares of both the other sides, that side is the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle.

Let the square described on AC be equivalent to the two squares of AB and BC; the triangle ABC is right-angled at B.

For draw BD perpendicular to AB (I. 38) and equal to BC, and join AD.

Because BC is equal to BD, the square of BC is (II. 9. cor.) equal to the square of BD, and consequently the squares of AB and BC are equal to the squares of AB and BD. But the squares of AB and BC are by hypothesis equivalent to the square of AC; and since ABD is, by construction, a right angle, the squares of AB and BD are (II. 12.) equivalent to the square of AD. Whence the square of AC is equivalent to that of AD, and (II. 9. cor.) the straight line AC equal to CD. The two triangles ACB and ADB, having all the sides in the one respectively equal to those in the other, are, therefore, equal (I. 2.), and consequently the angle ABC



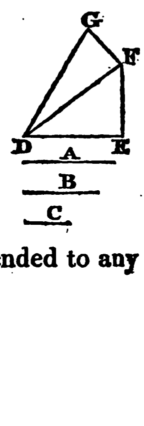
is equal to the corresponding angle ABD, that is, to a right angle.

PROP. XVI. PROB.

To find the side of a square equivalent to any number of given squares.

Let A, B, and C be the sides of the squares, to which it is required to find an equivalent square.

Draw DE equal to A, and from its extremity E erect (I. 38.) the perpendicular EF equal to B, join DF, and perpendicular to this draw FG equal to C, and join DG: DG is the side of the square which was required.



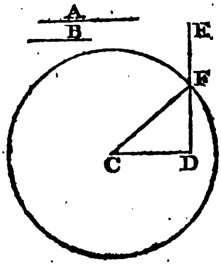
For because DEF is a right-angled triangle, the square of DF is equivalent to the squares of DE and EF (II. 14.), or of A and B. Add the square of FG or C, and the squares of DF and FG, which are equivalent to the square of DG (II. 14.), are equivalent to the aggregate squares of A, B, and C. And by thus repeating the process, it may be extended to any number of squares.

PROP. XVII. PROB.

To find the side of a square equivalent to the difference between two given squares.

Let A and B be the sides of two squares; it is required to find a square equivalent to their difference.

Draw CD equal to the smaller line B, from its extremity erect (I 38.) the indefinite perpendicular DE, and about the centre C with a distance equal to the greater line A describe a circle cutting DE in F: FD is the side of the square required.



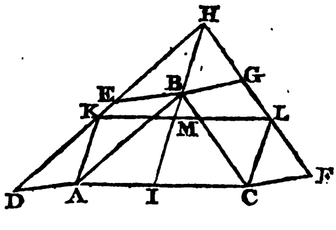
For join CF. The triangle CDF being right-angled, the square of the hypotenuse CF is equivalent to the squares of CD and DF (II. 14), and consequently, taking the square of DF from both, the excess of the square of CF above that of DF is equivalent to the square of CD, or the square of CD is equivalent to the excess of the square of A above that of B.

PROP. XVIII. THEOR.

In any triangle, the rhomboids described on two sides, are together equivalent to a rhomboid described on the base, and limited by these and by parallels to the line which joins the vertex with their point of concourse.

Let ADEB and BGFC be rhomboids described on the two sides AB and BC of the triangle ABC; produce the summits DE and FG to meet in H, join this point with the vertex B, draw the parallels AK, CL, and join KL. It is obvious that AK, CL, being equal and parallel to BH, are likewise equal and parallel to each other, and that the figure AKLC is a parallelogram or rhomboid.—This rhomboid is equivalent to the two rhomboids BD and BF.

For produce HB to meet the base AC in I. And be-



cause the rhomboids KI and AH stand on the same base AK and between the same parallels, they are equivalent (II. 1. cor.); but the rhomboids AH and BD, standing on the same base AB and between the same parallels, are also equivalent. Whence KI is equivalent to BD. And in the same manner it may be proved that LI is equivalent to BF. Consequently the whole rhomboid KC is equivalent to the two rhomboids BD and BF.

PROP. XIX. THEOR.

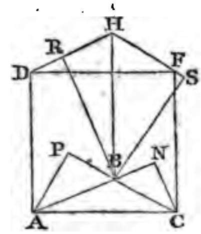
In any triangle, the square described on the base, is equivalent to the rectangles contained by the two sides and their segments intercepted from the base by perpendiculars let fall upon them from its opposite extremities.

Let the perpendiculars AP, CN be let fall from the points A, C upon the opposite sides BC and AB of the triangle ABC; the square of AC is equivalent to the rectangles contained by AB, AN and by BC, CP.

For complete the rhomboids ADHB and CFHB, and let fall the perpendiculars BR and BS upon DH and FH.

It is manifest, from the last Proposition, that the rhomboids AH and CH are equivalent to the square of AC. But the rhomboid AH is equivalent to the rectangle contained by AB and BR (II. 1. cor.). Comparing the triangles BHR and ACN; the angle BRH, being a right angle, is equal to ANC; and the two acute angles BHR

and RBH, being together equal to a right angle, are equal to DAN and NAC; but DAB is equal to DHB (I. 29.), whence the angle RBH is equal to NAC. These triangles BHR and ACN, having thus two angles respectively equal, and the corresponding side BH in the one equal to AD or AC in the other, are, therefore, equal (I. 23.), and consequently the side BR is equal to AN. The rectangle AB and BR, which is equivalent to the rhomboid AH, is hence equivalent to the rectangle contained by AB and AN (II. 9.).



In the same manner, it may be demonstrated, by comparing the triangles BHS and PAC, that, the rectangle under BC and BS, which is equivalent to the rhomboid CH, is equivalent to the rectangle contained by BC and CP. Wherefore the two rectangles of AB, AN and BC, CP are together equivalent to the square described on AC.

Cor. If the triangle ABC be right-angled at the vertex B, the perpendiculars CN and AP will evidently meet at the vertex, and consequently the rectangles AB, AN and BC, CP will become the squares of AB and BC. And hence the beautiful Proposition II. 14. is derived, being only a remarkable case of a much more general property.

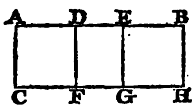
PROP. XX. THEOR.

The rectangle contained by two straight lines, is equivalent to the rectangles contained under one of them and the several segments into which the other is divided.

The rectangle under AC and AB, is equivalent to the rectangles contained by AC and the segments AD, DE, and EB.

For through the points D and E draw DF and EG parallel to AC (I. 26.).

The figures AF, DG, and EH are evidently rhomboidal; they are also rectangular, for the angles ADF, AEG, and ABH are equal to the opposite angle CAD (I. 29.). And the opposite sides DF, EG, and BH, being equal to AC,—the spaces into which the rectangle BC is resolved, are equal to the rectangles contained by AC and AD, DE, and EB.



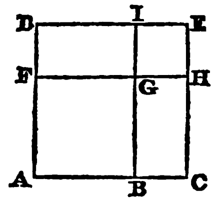
PROP. XXI. THEOR.

The square described on the sum of two straight lines, is equivalent to the squares of those lines, together with twice their rectangle.

If AB and BC be two straight lines placed continuous; the square described on their sum AC, is equivalent to the two squares of AB, BC, and twice the rectangle contained by them.

For through B draw BI parallel to AD (I. 26.), make AF equal to AB, and through F draw FH parallel to DE.

It is manifest that the spaces AG, GE, DG and CG, into which the square of AC is divided, are all rhomboidal and rectangular. And because AB is equal to AF and the opposite sides equal, the figure AG is equilateral, and having a right angle at A, is hence a square. Again, AD being equal to AC, take away the equals AF and AB, and there remains DF equal to BC, and consequently IG equal to GH (I. 29.); wherefore IH is likewise a square. The rectangle



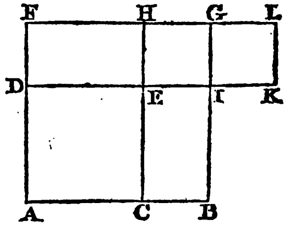
DG is contained by the sides FG and DF, which are equal to AB and BC; and the rectangle CG is contained by the sides GB and GH, which are likewise equal to AB and BC. Consequently the whole square of AC is composed of the two squares of AB and BC, together with twice the rectangle contained by these lines.

PROP. XXII. THEOR.

The square described on the difference of two straight lines, is equivalent to the squares of those lines, diminished by twice their rectangle.

Let AC be the difference of two straight lines AB and BC; the square of AC is equivalent to the excess of the two squares of AB and BC above twice their rectangle.

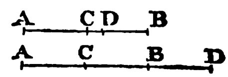
For make AD equal to AC, draw CH and DI parallel to AF and AB (I. 26.), produce FG until GL be equal to BC, and complete the figure GK.



It is evident, from the demonstration of the last Proposition, that DC is the square of AC, and GK the square of BC. From the compound surface AFLKIB, which is made up of the squares of AB and BC, take away twice the rectangle AB, BC, or the two rectangles FI and CG, or the rectangle FI with the rectangle CI and the square IL,—and there remains ADEC, or the square of the difference AC of the two lines AB and BC.

GF (II. 14) is, therefore, equivalent to twice the square of GF or of DB; and the square of AE, in the right-angled triangle ADE, is equivalent to the squares of AD and DE, or twice the square of AD. But since ABF is a right angle, the square of AF is equivalent to the squares of AB and BF, or AB and BC; and because AEF is also a right angle, the square of the same line AF is equivalent to the squares of AE and EF, that is, to twice the squares of AD and DB. Wherefore the squares of AB, BC are together equivalent to twice the squares of AD and DB.

Cor. Hence if a straight line AB be bisected in C and cut unequally in D, whether by internal or external section, the squares of the unequal segments AD and DB are together equivalent to twice the square of the half line AC, and twice the square of CD the interval between the points of division.

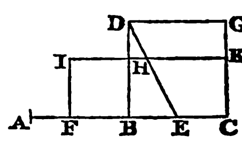


PROP. XXVI. PROB.

To cut a given straight line, such that the square of one part shall be equivalent to the rectangle contained by the whole line and the remaining part.

Let AB be the straight line which it is required to divide into two segments, such that the square of the one shall be equivalent to the rectangle contained by the whole line and the other.

Produce AB till BC be equal to it, erect (I. 5. cor.) the perpendicular BD equal to AB or BC, bisect BC in E (I. 7.), join ED and make EF equal to it; the square of the segment BF is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the whole BA and its remaining segment AF.



For on BC construct the square BG (I. 39.), make BH equal to BF, and draw IHK and FI parallel to AC and BD (I. 26.). Since AB is equal to BD, and BF to DH; the remainder AF is equal to HD: and it is further evident, that FH is a square, and IC and DK are rectangles. But BC being bisected in E and produced to F, the rectangle under CF, FB, or the rectangle IC, together with the square of BE, is equivalent to the square of EF or DE (I. 23. cor. 2.). But the square of DE is equivalent to the squares of DB and BE (II. 14.); whence the rectangle IC, with the square of BE, is equivalent to the squares of DB and BE; or, omitting the common square of BE, the rectangle IC is equivalent to the square of DB. Take away from both the rectangle BK, and there remains the square BI, or the square of BF, equivalent to the rectangle HG, or the rectangle contained by BA and AF.

Cor. 1. Since the rectangle under CF and FB is equivalent to the square of BC, it is apparent that the line CF is likewise divided at B in a manner similar to the original line AB. But this line CF is made up by joining the whole line AB, now become only the larger portion, to its greater segment BF, which next forms the smaller portion in the new compound. Hence this division of a line being once obtained, a series of other lines possessing the same property may readily be found by repeated additions. Thus let AB be so cut that the square of BC is equivalent to the rectangle BA, AC: Make successively

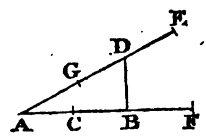
BD equal to BA, DE equal to DC, EF equal to EB, and FG equal to FD; the lines CD, BE, DF, and EG are divided in the points B, D, E, and F, such that, in each of them, the square of the larger part is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the whole and the smaller part.

Cor. 2. Hence also the construction of another problem of the same nature; in which it is required to produce a

straight line AB, such that the rectangle contained by the whole line thus produced and the part produced, shall be equivalent to the square of the line AB itself. Divide AB in C, so that the rectangle BA, AC is equal to the square of BC, and produce AB until BD be equal to BC: Then, from what has been demonstrated, it follows that the rectangle AD, DB is equivalent to the square of AB.

This problem may, however, be constructed somewhat differently, without employing the collateral properties.

For bisect AB in C (I. 7.), draw (I. 5. cor. 2.) the perpendicular BD equal to BC, join AD and continue it until DE be equal to DB or BC, and on AB produced take AF equal to AE: The line AF, is the required extension of AB. For make DG equal to DB or BC; and because (II. 23. cor.) the rectangle EA, AG together with the square of DG or DB, is equivalent to the square of DA, or to the squares of AB and DB; the rectangle EA, AG, or FA, AC, is equivalent to the square of AB.



It will be convenient, for the sake of conciseness, to designate in future this remarkable division of a line, where the rectangle under the whole and one part is equivalent to the square of the other, by the term Medial Section.

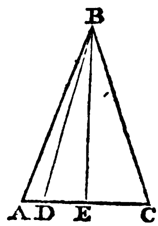
PROP. XXVII. THEOR.

The square of the side of an isosceles triangle is equivalent to the square of a straight line drawn from the vertex to the base, together with the rectangle contained by the segments thus formed.

If BD be drawn from the vertex of the isosceles triangle

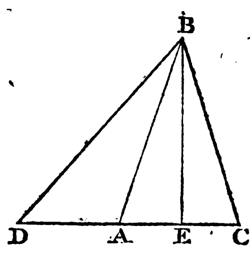
ABC to a point D in the base; the square of AB is equivalent to the square of BD, together with the rectangle under the segments AD, DC.

For bisect the base AC in E, and join BE. Because the triangles ABE and CBE have the sides AB, AE equal to BC, CE, and the side BE common, they are equal (I. 2.), and consequently the corresponding angles BEA, BEC are equal, and each of them a right angle.



Wherefore the square of AB is equivalent to the squares of AE and BE (II. 14.); and since AC is cut equally in E and unequally in D, the square of AE is equivalent to the square of DE, together with the rectangles AD, DC (II. 23. cor. 1.); and consequently the square of AB is equivalent to the squares of BE and DE, together with the rectangle AD, DC. But the square of BD is equivalent to the squares of BE and DE (II. 14); whence the square of AB is equivalent to the square of BD, together with the rectangle AD, DC.

Cor. The square of a straight line BD drawn from the vertex of an isosceles triangle to any point in the base produced, is equivalent to the square of BA the side of the triangle, together with the rectangle contained by AD, DC the external segments of the base.



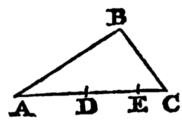
For draw BE, as before, to bisect the base AC. The square of DE is equivalent to the square of AE, together with the rectangle AD, DC (II. 23. cor. 2); to each of these, add the square of BE, and the squares of DE and BE,—that is, the square of BD (II. 14.),—are equal to the squares of AE and BE, or the square of BA, together with the rectangle AD, DC.

PROP. XXVIII. THEOR.

If from the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, portions be cut off equal to the adjacent sides; the square of the middle segment thus formed, is equivalent to twice the rectangle contained by the extreme segments.

Let ABC be a triangle which is right-angled at B; from the hypotenuse AC, cut off AE equal to AB, and CD equal to CB: Twice the rectangle under AD and CE is equivalent to the square of DE.

For the straight line AC being divided into three portions, the squares of AE and CD, together with twice the rectangle AD, CE, are equivalent to the squares of AC and DE (II. 24. cor. 1.). But the squares of AB and BC, or those of AE and CD, are equivalent to the square of AC (II. 14.).



There, consequently, remains twice the rectangle AD, CE equivalent to the square of DE.

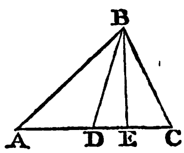
Cor. By an inverse process of reasoning it will appear, that if twice the rectangle AD, CE be equal to the square of DE, the straight line AC, so composed, is the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, of which AB and BC are the sides.

PROP. XXIX. THEOR.

In a scalene triangle, the difference between the squares of the sides, is equivalent to twice the rectangle contained by the base and the distance of its middle point from the perpendicular.

Let the side AB of the triangle ABC be greater than BC; and having let fall the perpendicular BE, and bisected AC in D: the excess of the square of AB above that of BC, is equivalent to twice the rectangle contained by AC and DE.

For the square of AB is equivalent to the squares of AE and BE (II. 14.), and the square of BE is equivalent to the squares CE and BE; wherefore the excess of the square of AB above that of BC, is equivalent to the excess of the square of AE above that of CE. But the excess of the square of AE above that of CE, is (II. 28.) equivalent to the rectangle contained by their sum AC and their difference, which is the double of DE (II. 13. cor.);



and consequently the difference between the squares of AE and CE, being equivalent to the rectangle contained by AE and the double of CE, is equivalent to twice the rectangle under AE and CE.

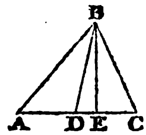
Cor. The difference between the squares of the sides of a triangle, is equivalent to the difference between the squares of the segments of the base made by a perpendicular.

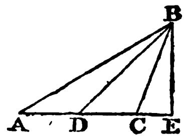
PROP. XXX. THEOR.

In any triangle the sum of the squares of the sides, is equivalent to twice the square of half the base and twice the square of the straight line which joins the point of bisection with the vertex.

Let BD be drawn from the vertex B of the triangle ABC to bisect the base; the squares of the sides AB and BC are together equivalent to twice the squares of AD and DB.

For let fall the perpendicular BE (I. 5.); and if the point D coincide with E, the triangle ABC being evidently isosceles, the squares of AB and BC are the same with double the square of AB, or double the squares of AE and EB, or of AD and DB (II. 14.) But if the perpendicular fall upon C, the triangle is right-angled, and the squares of AB and BE or BC are equivalent to double the square of EB or CB, and the square of EA or CA, double the square of ED, or CD, and twice the square of AD; and since double the square of EB or CB, and double the square of ED or CD, are equivalent to twice the square of DB (II. 14.), the squares of AB and BE or BC are equivalent to twice the squares of AD and DB.





In every other case, whether the perpendicular BE falls within or without the base AC, the squares of AE, EC, the unequal segments of AC, are (II. 26. cor.) equivalent to twice the square of AD and twice the square of DE; add twice the square of EB to both, and the squares of AE, EB and of CE, EB, or the squares of the hypotenuses AB, BC, are equivalent to twice the square of AD, and twice the squares of DE, EB, that is, (II. 14.) twice the square of DB.

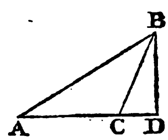
Cor. If the triangle ABC be right-angled at B, the straight line BD drawn from that point to bisect the base, is equal to either of its segments AD, DC. For the squares of AB and BC, being in this case equivalent to the square of AC (II. 14.), or four times the square of AD, twice the square of AD and twice the square of DB, must be equivalent to four times the square of AD, and consequently twice the square of AD is equivalent to twice the square of DB, or the sides of AD and DB are equal (II. 9. cor.).

PROP. XXXI. THEOR.

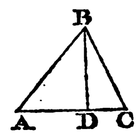
The square of the side of a triangle is greater or less than the squares of the base and the other side, according as the opposite angle is obtuse or acute,—by twice the rectangle contained by the base and the distance intercepted between the vertex of that angle and the perpendicular.

In the oblique-angled triangle ABC, where the perpendicular BD falls without the base; the square of the side AB which subtends the oblique angle exceeds the squares of the sides AC and BC which contain it, by twice the rectangle under AC and CD.

For the square of AD, or of the sum of AC and CD, is (II. 21.) equivalent to the squares of these lines AC, CD, together with twice their rectangle. Add the square of DB to each side, and the squares of AD, DB, or (II. 14.) the square of AB is equivalent to the square of AC, and the squares of CD, DB, together with twice the rectangle AC, CD; but the squares of CD, DB are (II. 14.) equivalent to the square of CB; whence the square of AB exceeds the squares of AB, BC, by twice the rectangle under AC and CD.



Again, in the acute-angled triangle ABC, where the perpendicular BD falls within the triangle; the square of the side AB that subtends the acute angle, is less than the squares of the containing sides AC, BC, by twice the rectangle under the base AC and its intercepted portion CD.



For the square of AD, or of the difference between AC and CD, is (II. 22.) equivalent to the squares of AC, CD, diminished by twice their rectangle. Add to each the square of DB and the squares of AD and DB—or the square of AB—are equivalent to the square of AC, with the squares of CD, DB—or the square of BC—diminished by twice the rectangle under AC and CD. Consequently the square of AB is less than the squares of AC, BC, by twice the rectangle under AC, CD.

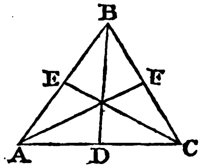
Cor. If the side AB be equal to the base AC, the square of the other side BC is equivalent to twice the rectangle AC, CD.

PROP. XXXII. THEOR.

If straight lines be drawn from the angular points of a triangle to bisect the opposite sides, thrice the squares of these sides are together equivalent to four times the squares of the bisecting lines.

Let the sides of the triangle ABC be bisected in D, E, and F, and straight lines drawn from these points to the opposite vertices; thrice the squares of the sides AB, BC, and AC are together equivalent to four times the squares of BD, CE and AF.

For by Prop. II. 29, the squares of AB, BC are equivalent to twice the square of BD and twice the square of AD, that is, half the square of AC; the squares of BC, AC are equivalent to twice the squares of CE and half the square of AB; and the squares of AC, AB are equivalent to twice the square of AF and half the



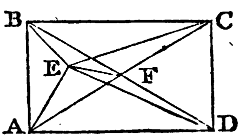
square of BC. Whence the squares of the sides of the triangle, repeated twice, are equivalent to twice the squares

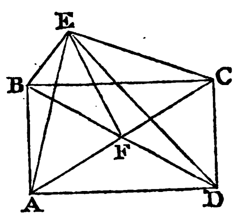
of BD, CE, and AF, with half the squares of the sides of the triangle. Consequently four times the squares of AB BC, and AC are equivalent to four times the squares of BD, CE, and AF, with once the squares of AB, BC, and AC; wherefore thrice the squares of the sides AB, BC, and AC are together equivalent to four times the squares of the bisecting lines BD, CE, and AF.

PROP. XXXIII. THEOR.

The squares of lines drawn from any point to the opposite corners of a rectangle are together equivalent.

If from a point E, either within or without the rectangle ABCD, straight lines be drawn to the four corners, the squares of AE, EC are together equivalent to the squares of BE, ED.



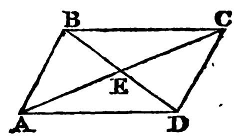


For join E with F,—the intersection of the diagonals AC, BD. And because the triangles BCD, ADC have the side BC equal to AD, CD common, and the right angle BCD equal to ADC, they are equal (I. 3.) and consequently BD is equal to AC; and since these diagonals bisect each other (I. 31.), the portions AF, BF, CF, and DF are all equal. Wherefore the squares of AE, EC are equivalent to twice the square of AF and twice the square of EF (I. 29.), and the squares of BE, ED are likewise equivalent to the square of BF and the same square of EF; consequently, the squares of AF and BF being equal, the squares of AE, EC, are together equivalent to the squares of BE, ED.

PROP. XXXIV. THEOR.

The squares of the sides of a rhomboid, are together equivalent to the squares of its diagonals.

Let ABCD be a rhomboid: The squares of all the sides AB, BC, CD, and AD, are together equivalent to the squares of the diagonals AC, BD.



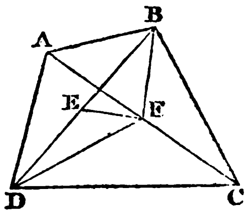
For the diagonals bisect each other (I. 31.), and consequently the squares of AB, BC, are equivalent to twice the square of AE and twice the square of BE (II. 30.); wherefore twice the squares of AB, BC, or the squares of all the sides of the rhomboid, are equivalent to four times the square of AE and four times the square of BE, that is, to the squares of AC and BD.

PROP. XXXV. THEOR.

The squares of the sides of a quadrilateral figure are together equivalent to the squares of the diagonals, together with four times the square of the straight line joining their middle points.

Let ABCD be a quadrilateral figure, in which the straight lines AC, BD, drawn to the opposite corners, are bisected in the points E, F; the squares of AB, BC, CD, and DA, are together equivalent to the squares of AC, BD, together with four times the square of EF.

For join EF. And because AC is bisected in F, the squares of AB, BC, are equivalent to twice the square of AF, and twice the square of BF (II. 29); and for the same reason, the squares of CD, DA, are equivalent to twice the square of AF and twice the square of DF. Consequently the squares of all the sides AB, BC, CD, and DA, are equivalent to four times the square of AF—or the square of AC—with twice the square of BF and of DF. But twice these squares of BF and DF, is equivalent (II. 29.) to four times the square of BE, or the square of BD, with four times the square of EF; whence the squares of all the sides of the quadrilateral figure, are together equivalent to the squares of its diagonals AC, BD, with four times the square of EF, which joins their points of equal section.



ELEMENTS

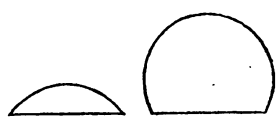
OF

GEOMETRY.

BOOK III.

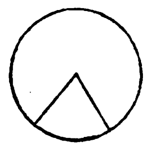
DEFINITIONS.

1. Any portion of the circumference of a circle is called an *arc*, and the straight line which joins the two extremities, a *chord*.

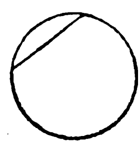


2. The space included between an arc and its chord is named a *segment*.

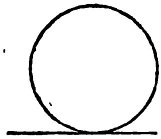
3. A *sector* is the portion of a circle contained by two radii and the arc between them.



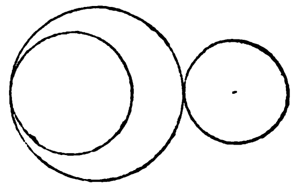
4. A straight line is said to be *inflected* in a circle, when it terminates at the circumference.



5. The *tangent* to a circle is a straight line which *touches* the circumference, or meets it only in a single point.



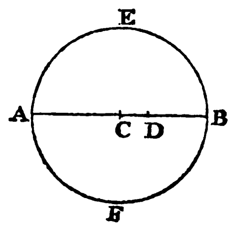
6. Circles are said to *touch* mutually, if they meet but do not cut each other.



7. The point where a straight line touches a circle, or one circle touches another, is termed the point of *contact*.

PROP I. THEOR.

A circle has only one centre.



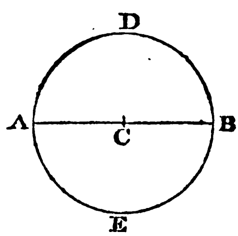
For if the circle AEBF has, besides the centre C, another centre D; join the points C, D, and extend the straight line to terminate both ways in the circumference at A and B.

Because C is the centre of the circle, AC is equal to CB; but since D is also a centre, AD must be equal to DE; that is, a greater to a less,—which is impossible. Wherefore the circle AEBF has no other centre than the point C.

PROP. II. THEOR.

A circle is bisected by its diameter.

The circle ADBE is divided into two equal portions by the diameter AB.

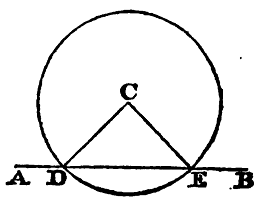


For let the portion ADB be reversed and applied to AEB, the straight line AB and its middle point, or the centre C, remaining the same. And since the radii of the circle are all equal, or the distance of C from any point in the boundary ADB is equal to its distance from any point of the boundary AEB, every point D of the former must meet with a corresponding point of the latter, and consequently the two portions ADB and AEB will entirely coincide.

Cor. The portion ADB limited by a diameter, is thus a semicircle, and the arc ADB is a semicircumference.

PROP. III. THEOR.

A straight line cuts the circumference of a circle only in two points.



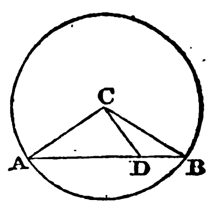
If the straight line AB cut the circumference of a circle in D, it can only meet it again in a single point E.

For join D and the centre C; and because from the point C only two equal straight lines, such as CD and CE, can be drawn to AB (I. 22. cor.), the circle described from C through the point D will cross AB again only at E.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

The chord of an arc lies wholly within the circle.

The straight line AB which joins two points A, B in the circumference of a circle, lies wholly within the figure.



For from the centre C draw CD to any point in AB, and join CA and CB.

Because CDA is the exterior angle of the triangle CDB, it is greater than the interior CBD or CBA (I. 10.); but CBA, being equal to CAB or CAD (I. 8.), CDA is greater than CAD; wherefore the opposite side CA is greater than CD (I. 15.),

or CD is less than CA, and consequently the point D must lie within the circle.

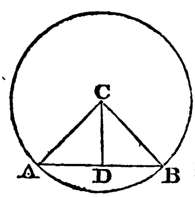
Cor. Hence a circle is concave towards its centre.

PROP. V. THEOR.

A straight line drawn from the centre of a circle at right angles to a chord, likewise bisects it; and, conversely, the straight line which joins the centre with the middle of a chord, is perpendicular to it.

The perpendicular let fall from the centre C upon the chord AB, cuts it into two equal parts AD, DB.

For join CA, CB: And in the triangles ACD, BCD, the side AC is equal to CB, CD is common to both, and the right angle ADC is equal to BDC; these triangles, being of the same affection, are equal (I. 24.), and consequently the corresponding side AD equal to BD.



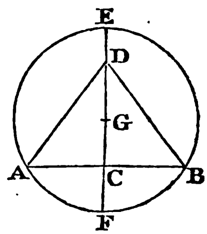
Again, let AD be equal to BD; the bisecting line CD is at right angles to AB.

For join CA, CB. The triangles ACD and BCD, having the sides AC, AD equal to CB, BD, and the remaining side CD common to both, are equal (I. 2.), and consequently the angle CDA is equal to CDB, and each of them a right angle.

PROP. VI. THEOR.

A straight line which bisects a chord at right angles, passes through the centre of the circle.

If the perpendicular FE bisect a chord AB, it will pass through G the centre of the circle.

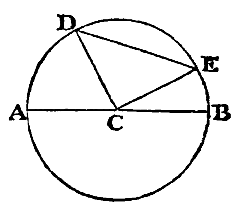


For in FE take any point D, and join DA and DB. The triangles ADC and BDC, having the side AC equal to BC, CD common, and the right angle ACD equal to BCD, are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the base AD is equal to BD. The point D is, therefore, the centre of a circle described through A and B; and thus the centres of the circles that can pass through A and B are all found in the straight line EF. The centre G of the circle AEBF must hence occur in that perpendicular.

Cor. The centre of a circle may hence be found by bisecting the chord AB by the diameter EF (I. 7.), and bisecting this again in G.

PROP. VII. THEOR.

The greatest line that can be drawn within a circle, is the diameter.



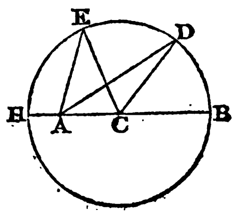
The diameter AB is greater than any chord DE.

For join CD and CE. The two sides DC and EC of the triangle DCE are together greater than the third side DE (I. 16.); but DC and CE are equal to AC and CB, or to the whole diameter AB. Wherefore AB is greater than DE.

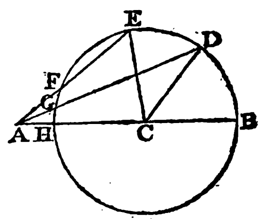
PROP VIII. THEOR.

If from any eccentric point, two straight lines be drawn to the circumference of a circle; the one which passes nearer the centre, is greater than that which lies more remote.

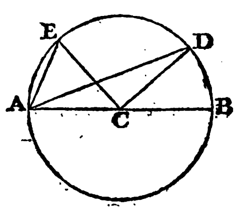
Let C be the centre of a circle, and A a different point, from which two straight lines AD and AE are drawn to the circumference; of these lines, AD, which lies nearer to B the opposite extremity of the diameter, is greater than AE.



For the triangles ADC and AEC have the side CD equal to CE, the side CA common to both, but the contained angle DCA greater than ECA; wherefore (I. 20.) the base AD is likewise greater than the base AE.



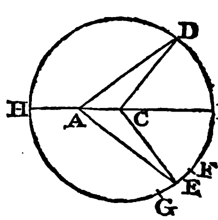
Cor. 1. Hence the straight line ACB, which passes through the centre, is the greatest of all those that can be drawn to the circumference of the circle from the eccentric point A. For it is evident from the Proposition, that the nearer the point D approaches to B, the greater is AD; consequently the point B forms the extreme limit of majority, or AB is the greatest line that can be drawn from A to the circumference.

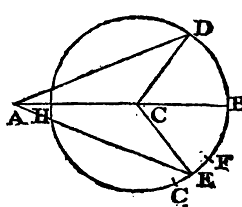


Cor. 2. Hence also, whether the eccentric point be within or without the circle, the straight line AH is the shortest that can be drawn from A to the circumference. For AE is less than AD, and AG less than AF; and the nearer the terminating point approaches to H, which is obviously the most remote from B, the shorter must be its distance from A. Wherefore the point H marks the limit of minority, and AH is the shortest line that can be drawn from A to the circumference of the circle.

PROP. IX. THEOR.

From any eccentric point, not more than two straight lines can be drawn to the circumference, one on each side of the diameter.





Let A be a point which is not the centre of the circle, and AD a straight line drawn from it to the circumference.

Find the centre C (III. 6. cor.) join CA and CD, draw CE making an angle ACE equal to ACD (I. 4.) and cutting the circumference in E, and join AE: The straight lines AE, AD are equal.

For the triangles ADC, AEC, having the side CD equal to CE, the side AC common, and the contained angle ACD equal to ACE, are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the base AD is equal to AE.

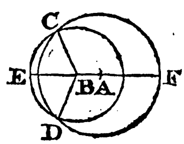
But, except AE, no straight line can be drawn from A on the same side of the diameter HB, that shall be equal to

AD: For if the line terminate in a point F between E and B, it will be greater than AE (III. 8.); and if the line terminate in G between E and H, it will, for the same reason, be less than AE.

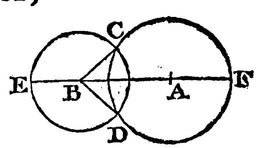
Cor. That point from which more than two equal straight lines can be drawn to the circumference, is the centre of the circle.

PROP. X. THEOR.

One circle will not cut another in more than two points.



Let DCF and DCE be two circles, of which A and B are the centres; join B and the intersections C and D.



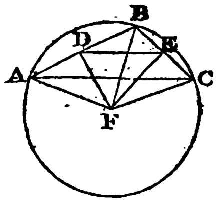
And because B is a point different from the centre A of the circle DCF, not more than two straight lines BC and BD can be drawn from it to the circumference of that circle (III. 9.); consequently the circle, described from B as a centre and through the points C and D, will not again meet the circumference DCF.

PROP. XI. THEOR.

A circle may be described through three points which are not in the same straight line.

Let A, B, C, be three points not lying in the same di-

rection; the circumference of a circle may be made to pass through these points.



For (I. 7.) bisect AB by the perpendicular DF, and BC by the perpendicular EF. These straight lines DF, EF will meet; because, DE being joined, the angles EDF, DEF are less than BDF, BEF, and consequently are together less than two right angles, and DF, EF are not parallel (I. 25.) but concur to form a triangle whose vertex is F.

Again, every circle that passes through the two points A and B, has its centre in the perpendicular DF (III. 6.); and, for the same reason, every circle that passes through B and C has its centre in EF; consequently the circle which would pass through all the three points, must have its centre in F, the point common to both perpendiculars DF and EF.

It is manifest that, there is only one circle which can be made to pass through the three points A, B, C; for the intersection of the straight lines DF and EF, which marks the centre, is a single point.

Cor. Hence the mode of describing a circle about a given triangle ABC.

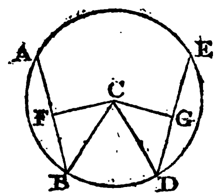
PROP. XII. THEOR.

Equal chords are equidistant from the centre of a circle; and chords which are equidistant from the centre, are likewise equal.

Let AB, DE be equal chords inflected within the same circle; their distances from the centre, or the perpendiculars CF, CG, let fall upon them, are equal.

For the perpendiculars CF and CG bisect the chords AB and DE (III. 5.), and consequently BF, DG, the halves

of these, are likewise equal. The right-angled triangles CBF and CDG, which are thus of the same affection, having the two sides BC, BF equal respectively to DC, DG, and the corresponding angle BFC equal to DGC, are equal (I. 24), and consequently the side FC is equal to GC.



Again, if the chords AB, DE be equally distant from the centre, they are themselves equal.

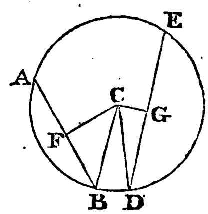
For the same construction remaining: The triangles CBF and CDG are still of the same affection; and have now the two sides CB, CF equal to CD, CG, and the angle BFC equal to DGC; consequently they are equal, and the side BF equal to DG; the doubles of these, therefore, or the whole chords AB, DE, are equal.

PROP. XIII. THEOR.

The greater chord is nearer the centre of the circle; and the chord which is nearer the centre is likewise the greater.

Let the chord AB be greater than DE; its distance from the centre, or the perpendicular CF let fall upon it, is less than the distance CG.

For in the right-angled triangle BCF, the square of the hypotenuse BC is equivalent to the squares of BF and FC (II. 14.); and for the same reason, the square of the hypotenuse DC of the right-angled triangle DCG is equivalent to the squares of DG and GC. But BC and DC are equal, and consequently their squares (II. 10. cor.); wherefore the



squares of BF and FC are equivalent to the squares of DG and GC. And since AB is greater than DE, its half BF is greater than DG, and consequently the square of BF is greater than the square of DG; the square of FC is, therefore, less than the square of GC, because, when joined to the squares of BF and DG, they produce the same amount, or the square of the radius of the circle. Hence the perpendicular FC itself is less than GC.

Again, if the chord AB be nearer the centre than DE, it is also greater.

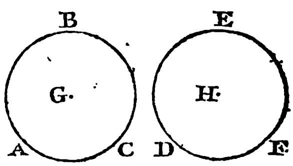
For the same construction remaining: It is proved that the squares of BF and FC are together equal to the squares of DG and GC; but FC being less than GC, the square of FC is less than the square of GC, and consequently the square of BF is greater than the square of DG; whence the side BF is greater than DG, and its double or the chord AB greater than DE.

PROP. XIV. THEOR.

Circles are equal which have equal diameters.

Let ABC and DEF be two circles of equal diameters, or described with the same distance GA or HD: they are equal.

For if the circle ABC be applied to DEF, the centre G being laid on H, these circles must coincide; because, the radius or semidiameter GA being equal to HD, every point A of the circumference ABC must, after the superposition of the surfaces, find a corresponding point D of the circumference DEF.



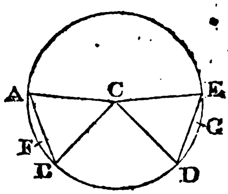
Cor. It is also manifest that, conversely, equal circles must have equal diameters.

PROP. XV. THEOR.

In the same or equal circles, equal angles at the centre are subtended by equal chords, and terminated by equal arcs.

If the angle ACB at the centre C be equal to DCE, the chord AB is equal to DE, and the arc AFB is equal to DGE.

For let the sector ACB be applied to DCE. The centre remaining in its place, the radius CA will lie on CD; and the angle ACB being equal to DCE, the radius CB will adapt itself to CE. And because all the radii are equal, their extreme points A and B must coincide with D and E; wherefore the straight lines which join those points, or the chords AB and DE, must coincide. But the arcs AFB and DGE that connect the same points, will also coincide; for any intermediate point F in the one, being at the same distance from the centre as every point of the other, must, on its application, find always a corresponding point G.



The same mode of reasoning is applicable to the case of equal circles.

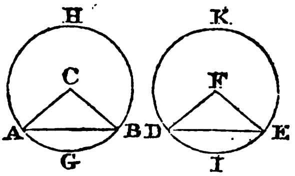
Cor. Hence, in the same or equal circles, equal arcs are subtended by equal chords, and terminate equal angles at the centre.

PROP. XVI. THEOR.

In the same or equal circles, equal chords subtend equal arcs of a like kind.

If the chord AB be different from the diameter, it will evidently subtend at the same time two unequal portions of the circumference of a circle, the one terminating the angle ACB at the centre and less than the semicircumference, the other greater than this and terminating the reversed angle.

In the equal circles GAHB and IDKE the chord AB subtends the arcs AGB and AHB, which are respectively equal to DIE and DKE subtended by the equal chord DE.



For join CA, CB, and FD, FE. The two triangles CAB and FDE, having all the sides of the one equal to those of the other, are equal (I. 2.); and consequently the angle ACB is equal to DFE. Wherefore the arcs AGB and DIE, which terminate these equal angles, are (III. 15.) themselves equal; and hence the remaining portions AHB and DKE of the equal circumferences are likewise equal.

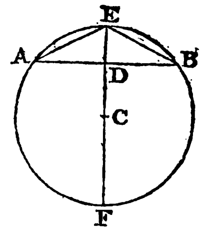
This demonstration, it is evident, will likewise apply in the case of the same circle.

PROP. XVII. PROB.

To bisect an arc of a circle.

Let it be required to divide the arc AEB into two equal portions.

Draw the chord AB, and bisect it by the perpendicular EF (I. 7.), cutting AB in E: The arc AE is equal to EB.



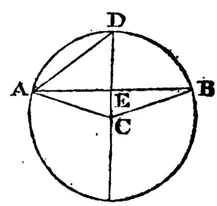
For the triangles ADE, BDE, have the side AD equal to BD, the side DE common, and the containing right angle ADE equal to BDE; they are (I. 3.) consequently equal, and the base AE equal to BE. But these equal chords AE, BE must subtend equal arcs of a like kind (III. 16.), and the arcs AE, BE are evidently each of them less than a semicircumference.

Cor. The correlative arc AFB is also bisected by the perpendicular EF.

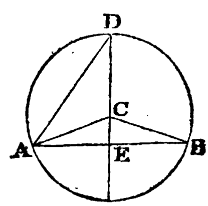
PROP. XVIII. PROB.

Given an arc, to complete its circle.

Let ADB be an arc; it is required to trace the circle to which it belongs.



Draw the chord AB, and bisect it by the perpendicular CD (I. 7.) cutting the arc in D, join AD, and from A draw AC making an angle DAC equal to ADC (I. 4.): The intersection C of this straight line with the perpendicular, is the centre of the circle required.



For join CB. The triangles ACE and BCE, having the side EA equal to EB, the side EC common, and the contained angle AEC equal to BEC, are equal (I. 3.), and consequently AC is equal to BC. But AC is also equal to CD (I. 9.) because the angle DAC was made equal to

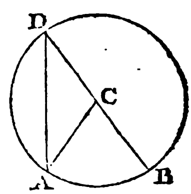
ADC. Wherefore (III. 9. cor.) the three straight lines CA, CD, and CB being all equal, the point C is the centre of the circle.

PROP. XIX. THEOR.

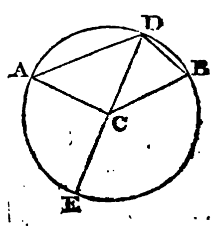
The angle at the centre of a circle is double of the angle which, standing on the same arc, has its vertex in the circumference.

Let AB be an arc of a circle; the angle which it terminates at the centre, is double of ADB the corresponding angle at the circumference.

For join DC and produce it to the opposite circumference. This diameter DCE, if it lie not on one of the sides of the angle ADB, must either fall within that angle or without it.

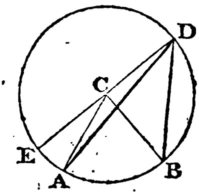


First, let DC coincide with DB. And because AC is equal to DC, the angle ADC is equal to DAC (I. 8.); but the exterior angle ACB is equal to both of these (I. 34.) and therefore equal to double of either, or the angle ACB at the centre is double of the angle ADB at the circumference.



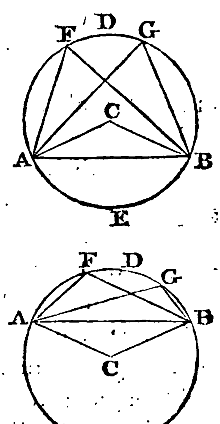
Next, let the straight line DCE lie within the angle ADB. From what has been demonstrated, it is apparent, that the angle ACE is double of ADE, and the angle BCE double of BDE; wherefore the angles ACE, BCE taken together, or the whole angle ACB, are double of the collected angles ADE, BDE, or the angle ADB at the circumference.

Lastly, let DCE fall without the angle ADB. Because the angle BCE is double of BDE, and the angle ACE is double of ADE; the excess of BCE above ACE, or the angle ACB at the centre, is double of the excess of BDE above ADE, that is, of the angle ADB at the circumference.



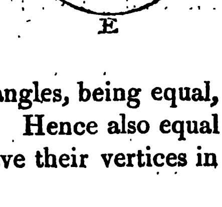
PROP. XX. THEOR.

The angles in the same segment of a circle are equal.



Let ADB be the segment of a circle; the angles AFB, AGB contained in it, or which stand on the opposite portion AEB of the circumference, are equal to each other.

For join CA, CB. The angle ACB at the centre is double of the angle AFB or AGB at the circumference (III. 19.); these angles AFB, AGB, which stand on the same arc AEB, are, therefore, the halves of the same central angle ACB, and are consequently equal to each other.



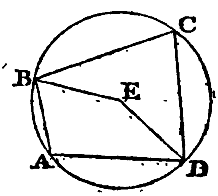
Cor. Hence equal angles at the circumference must stand on equal arcs; for their doubles or the central angles, being equal, are terminated by equal arcs (III. 15.) Hence also equal angles that stand on the same base, have their vertices in the same segment of a circle.

PROP. XXI. THEOR.

The opposite angles of a quadrilateral figure contained within a circle, are together equal to two right angles.

Let ABCD be a quadrilateral figure described in a circle; the angles A and C are together equal to two right angles, and so are those at B and D.

For join EB and ED. The angle BED at the centre is double of the angle BCD at the circumference (III. 19.); and for the same reason, the reversed angle BED is double of BAD. Consequently the angles BCD and BAD are the halves of angles about the point E, and which make up four right angles; wherefore the angles BCD and BAD are together equal to two right angles.



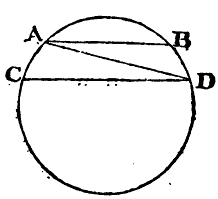
In the same manner, by joining EA and EC, it may be proved, that the angles ABC and ADC are together equal to two right angles.

Cor. Hence a circle may be described about a quadrilateral figure which has its opposite angles equal to two right angles; for if a circle be made to circumscribe the triangle BCD (III. 11. cor.), the angles opposite to the base BD are equal to two right angles, and therefore equal to the angles BCD and BAD; consequently the angle BAD is equal to an angle in the segment BAD, and hence (III. 20. cor.) they are contained in the same segment, or the circumference of the circle passes through all the four points A, B, C, and D.

PROP. XXII. THEOR.

Parallel chords intercept equal arcs of a circle.

Let the chord AB be parallel to CD; the intercepted arc AC is equal to BD.



For join AD. And because the straight lines AB and CD are parallel, the alternate angles BAD and ADC are equal (I. 25.); wherefore these angles, having their vertices in the circumference of the circle, must stand on equal arcs (III. 20. cor.), and consequently the arcs AC and BD are equal to each other.

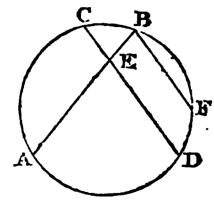
Cor. Hence, conversely, the straight lines which intercept equal arcs of a circle are parallel; and hence another mode of drawing a parallel through a given point to a given straight line.

PROP. XXIII. THEOR.

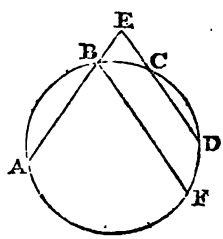
The inclination of two straight lines is equal to the angle terminated at the circumference by the sum or difference of the arcs which they intercept, according as their vertex is within or without the circle.

If the two straight lines AB and CD intersect each other in the point E within a circle; the angle AED

which they form, is equal to an angle at the circumference and standing on the sum of the intercepted arcs AD and BC.



For draw the chord BF parallel to CD (III. 22. cor.) Because ED and BF are parallel, the angle AED (I. 25.) is equal to the interior angle ABF, which stands on the arc AF; but since the chords BF and CD are parallel, the arc BC is equal to DF (III. 22.), and consequently the arc AF, which terminates at the circumference an angle equal to AED, is the sum of the two intercepted arcs AD and BC.



Again, if the straight lines AB and CD meet at E, without the circle, their inclination AED is equal to an angle at the circumference, and having for its base the excess of the arc AD above BC.

For BF being drawn parallel to CD, the arc BC is equal to FD, and consequently the arc AF is the excess of AD above BC; but the angle ABF which stands on AF, is equal to the interior angle AED.

Cor. Hence if two chords intersect each other at right angles within a circle, the opposite intercepted arcs are equal to the semicircumference.

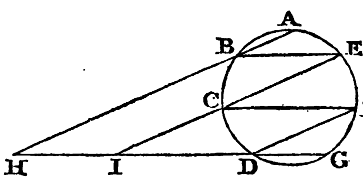
PROP. XXIV. THEOR.

If, on each side of any point in the circumference of a circle, equal arcs be repeated; the chords which join the opposite points of section will be together

equal to the last chord extended till it meets a straight line drawn through the middle point and either extremity of the first chord.

Let DAG be the circumference of a circle, in which the arcs AB, BC, CD on the one side of a point A, and the corresponding arcs AE, EF, FG on the other side, are all assumed equal; the chords BE, CF, and DG, are together equal to the line GH, formed by extending GD till it meets the production of AB.

For join FD and CE, and produce this to meet GH in the point I.



Because the arc CD is equal to FG, the chord CF is parallel to DG or ID (III. 22. cor.); consequently the exterior angle ECF is equal to CID (I. 25.); but ECF is equal to FDG, since they stand on the equal arcs EF and FG (III. 20.); whence the interior angle CID is equal to FDG, and therefore CI is parallel to FD (I. 25.)—or the figure ICFD is a parallelogram, and the side ID equal to CF (I. 29.)

Again, the double arc BD being equal to EG, the chord BE is parallel to DG or HI, and therefore the exterior angle ABE is equal to BHI; but ABE is equal to FDG, for they stand on equal arcs AE and FG; and FDG being equal to CID, the interior angle BHI must be equal to CID; and consequently the figure HBEI is a parallelogram, and the side HI equal to BE. Thus, the exterior part of the line GH consists of two segments HI and ID, which are respectively equal to the chords BE and CF, and the remaining part DG forms the third chord: The

extended chord GH is, therefore, equal to all the three chords BE, CF, and DG.

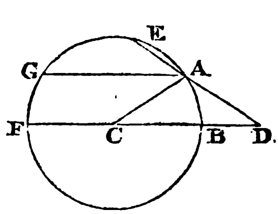
It is obvious, that the same train of reasoning may be pursued to any number of equal arcs.

PROP. XXV. THEOR.

If, from the end of an arc, a straight line equal to the radius of the circle, be inflected to a diameter extending through the other end, and be produced to meet the circumference; it will intercept, from the remoter extremity of the diameter, an arc which is triple of the first arc.

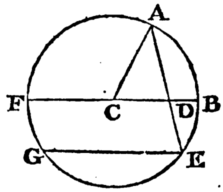
Let AB be an arc of a circle, and D a point in the extended diameter FB, such that DA is equal to the radius CB; on producing DA to meet the circumference in E, the arc FE, thus intercepted, is triple of AB.

If the point E lie between F and A; join AC, and draw AG parallel to DF. Because AD is equal to the radius AC, the angle ACB is equal to ADC (I. 8.); and DC being parallel to AG, the angle ADC is equal to EAG (I. 25.), and consequently EAG is equal to ACB. But an angle at the centre on the same



base GE would be double of EAG or ACB (III. 19.); wherefore the arc GE is double of AB (III. 20. cor.), and GF being equal to AB (III. 22.), the whole arc FE is triple of AB.

Again, if the point E lie beyond FA. Draw EG parallel to BF. And AD being equal to AC, the angle ACB is equal to ADC; but ADC is equal to the interior angle AEG, consequently the central angle ACB is equal to AEG at the circumference; wherefore the arc GFA is double of AB, and GFAB its triple; add to the one side, and take away from the other, the equal arcs BE and FG, and there results the arc FAE triple of AB.

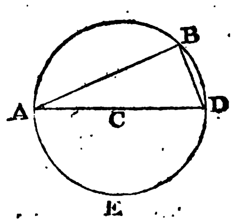


PROP. XXVI. THEOR.

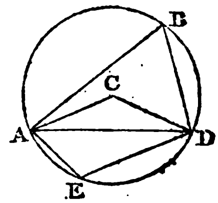
The angle in a semicircle is a right angle, the angle in a greater segment is acute, and the angle in a smaller segment is obtuse.

Let ABD be an angle in a semicircle, or that stands on the semicircumference AED; it is a right angle.

For ABD, being an angle at the circumference, is half of the angle at the centre on the same base AED (III. 19.); it is, therefore, half of the angle ACD formed by the opposite portions CA, CD of the diameter, or half of two right angles, and is consequently equal to one right angle.



Again, let ABD be an angle in a segment greater than a semicircle, or which stands on a less arc AED than the semicircumference; it is an acute angle.



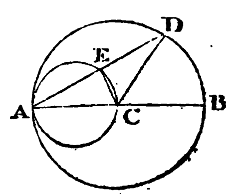
For join CA, CD. The angle ABD is half of the central angle ACD, which is evidently less than two right angles; wherefore ABD is less than one right angle, or it is acute.

But the angle AED, in the smaller segment, is obtuse. For AED stands on the arc ABD, which is greater than a semicircumference, and is the base of an angle at the centre, the reverse of ACD, and greater, therefore, than two right angles; AED is hence an obtuse angle.

Cor. From the remarkable property, that the angle in a semicircle is a right angle, may be derived an elegant method of drawing perpendiculars.

PROP. XXVII. THEOR.

If a circle be described on the radius of another circle, any straight line drawn from the point where they meet to the outer circumference is bisected by the interior one.



Let AEC be a circle described on the radius AC of the circle ADB, and AD a straight line drawn from A to terminate in the exterior circumference; the part AE in the smaller circle is equal to the part ED intercepted between the two circumferences.

For join CE, CD. And because AEC is a semicircle, the angle contained in it is a right angle (III. 25.); con-

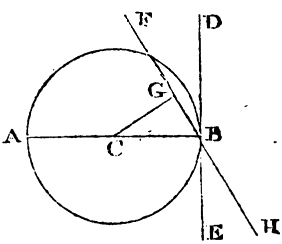
sequently the straight line CE, drawn from the centre C, is perpendicular to the chord AD, and therefore bisects it (III. 5.)

PROP. XXVIII. THEOR.

The perpendicular at the extremity of a diameter is a tangent to the circle, and is the only tangent which can be applied at that point.

Let ACB be the diameter of a circle, to which the straight line EBD is drawn at right angles from the extremity B; it will touch the circumference at that point.

For CB, being perpendicular, is the shortest distance of the centre C from the straight line EBD (I. 22.); wherefore every other point in this line is farther from the centre than B, and consequently falls without the circle.

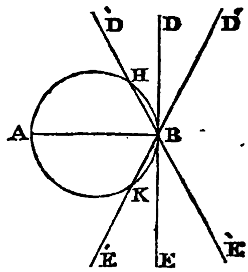


But the perpendicular EBD is the only straight line which can be drawn through the point B that will not cut the circle. For if HBF were such a line, the perpendicular CG, let fall upon it from the centre, would be less than CB (I. 22.) and would therefore lie within the circle; consequently HBG, being extended, would again meet the circumference before it effected its escape.

Cor. Hence a straight line drawn from the point of contact at right angles to a tangent, must be a diameter, or pass through the centre of the circle.

Schol. The nature of a tangent to the circle is easily discovered from the consideration of limits. For suppose the

straight line DE, extending both ways, to turn about the extremity B of the diameter AB; it will cut the circle first on the one side of AB, and afterwards on the other. But the arc AH being less than a semicircumference, the angle HBA which the line D'E' makes with the diameter is acute (III. 25.); and for the same reason, the angle KBA is acute, and consequently its adjacent angle D'BA is obtuse. Thus the revolving line DE, when it meets the semicircumference AHB, makes an acute angle with the diameter; but when it comes to meet the opposite semicircumference, it makes an obtuse angle. In passing, therefore, through all the intermediate gradations from minority to majority, the line DE must find a certain individual position in which it is at right angles to the diameter, and cuts the circle neither on the one side nor the other.



A similar inference might be derived from Prop. 22. of this Book; one of the parallel chords being supposed to contract, until its extreme points are about to coalesce in the position of the tangent.

PROP. XXIX. THEOR.

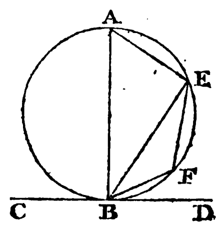
If from the point of contact a straight line be drawn to cut the circumference, the angles which it makes with the tangent are equal to those in the alternate segments of the circle.

Let CD be a tangent, and BE a straight line drawn

from the point of contact cutting the circle into two segments BAE and BFE; the angle EBD is equal to EAB, and the angle EBC to EFB.

For draw BA perpendicular to CD (I. 5. cor.), join AE, and from any point F in the opposite arc draw FB and FE.

Because BA is perpendicular to the tangent at B, it is a diameter (III. 26. cor.), and consequently AEFB is a semicircle; wherefore AEB is a right angle (III. 25.) and the remaining acute angles BAE, ABE of the triangle, being together equal to another right angle, are equal to ABE and EBD, which compose the right angle ABD. Take the angle ABE away from both, and the angle BAE remains equal to EBD.



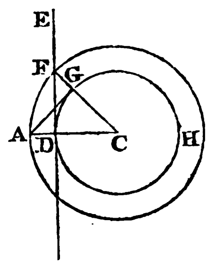
Again, the opposite angles BAE and BFE of the quadrilateral figure BAEF, being equal to two right angles (III. 21.), are equal to the angle EBD with its adjacent angle EBC; and taking away the equals BAE and EBD, there remains the angle BFE equal to EBC.

Cor. If a straight line meet the circumference of a circle, and make an angle with an inflected line equal to that in the alternate segment, it touches the circle.

PROP. XXX. PROB.

To draw a tangent to a circle from a given point without it.

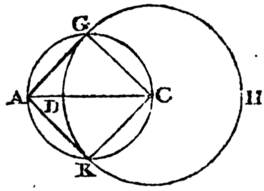
Let A be a given point, from which it is required to draw a straight line that shall touch the circle DGH.



Find the centre C (III. 6. cor.), join CA and draw DE perpendicular to CA (I. 5. cor.), from C with the distance CA describe a circle meeting DE in F, join CF cutting the interior circumference in G; AG being joined, is the tangent which was required.

For the triangles ACG and FCD have the sides CA, CG equal to CF, CD, and the containing angle ACF common to both; they are, therefore, equal (I. 3.), and consequently the angle CGA is equal to CDF. But CDF is a right angle; whence CGA is likewise a right angle, and AG a tangent to the circle (III. 27.)

Or thus.



On AC as a diameter describe the circle AGCK, cutting the given circle in the points G, K: Join AG, AK; either of these lines is the tangent required.

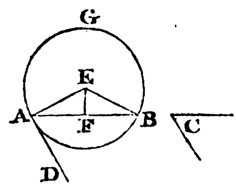
For join CG, CK. And the angles CGA, CKA, being each in a semicircle, are right angles (III. 25.), and consequently AG, AK touch the circle DGHK at the points G, K (III. 26.)

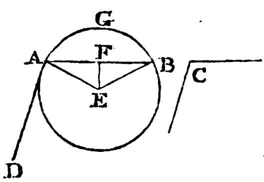
PROP. XXXI. PROB.

On a given straight line, to describe a segment of a circle, that shall contain an angle equal to a given angle.

Let AB be a straight line, on which it is required to describe a segment containing an angle equal to C.

If C be a right angle, it is evident that the problem will be performed, by describing a semicircle on AB. But if the angle C be either acute or obtuse: Draw AD making an angle BAD equal to C (I. 4.), erect AE perpendicular to AD (I. 38.), draw EF to bisect AB at right angles (I. 5. cor.) and meeting AE in E, and from this point as a centre and with the distance EA, describe the required segment AGB.



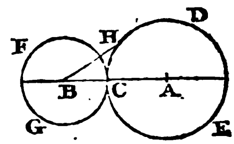


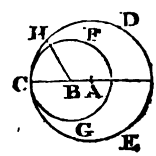
Because EF bisects AB at right angles, the distance EA is equal to EB (III. 6.), and the circle described through A must also pass through the point B; and since EAD is a right angle, AD touches the circle at A (III. 29.), and the angle BAD, which was made equal to C, is equal to the angle in the alternate segment AGB (III. 28.)

PROP. XXXII. THEOR.

Two circles which meet in the straight line join-

ing their centres or its continuation, touch each other.





Let the circles DCE, FCG meet at C in the direction of the straight line which joins their centres A, B; they touch each other at that point.

For draw BH to another point H in the circumference DCE. And because B is distinct from the centre A, the line BH is greater than BC (III. 8. cor. 2.), and consequently the point H lies without the circle FCG. Except, therefore, at the single point C, the circumference DCE does not meet FCG.

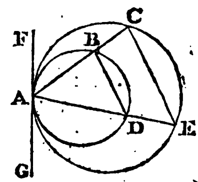
Cor. Hence a straight line extending through the centres of two circles will pass through their points of contact.

PROP. XXXIII. THEOR.

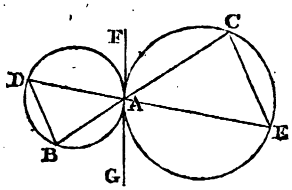
Two straight lines drawn through the point of contact of two circles, intercept arcs of which the chords are parallel.

Let the circles ACE and ABD touch mutually in A, and from this point the straight lines AC, AE be drawn to cut the circumferences; the chords CE and BD are parallel.

For draw the tangent FAG, which must touch both circles.



In the case of internal contact, the angle GAE is equal to ACE in the alternate segment, (III. 29.); and for the same reason, GAE or GAD is equal to ABD; consequently the angles ACE and ABD are equal, and therefore (I. 25.) the straight lines CE and BD are parallel.



When the contact is external, the angle GAE is still equal to ACE, and its vertical angle FAD is, for the same reason, equal to ABD; whence ACE is equal to ABD; and these being alternate angles, the straight line CE is parallel to BD.

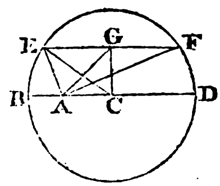
PROP. XXXIV. THEOR.

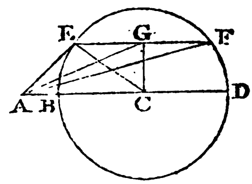
If from any point in the diameter of a circle or its extension, straight lines be drawn to the ends of a parallel chord; the squares of these lines are together equivalent to the squares of the segments into which the diameter is divided.

Let BEFD be a circle, BD its diameter produced, and A a point in this, from which the straight lines AE and AF are drawn to the ends of the parallel chord EF; the squares of AE and AF are together equivalent to the squares of AB and AD.

For from the centre C, let fall the perpendicular CG upon AB (I. 6.), and join AG and CE.

Because CG cuts the chord EF at right angles, GE is equal to GF (III. 5.); wherefore the squares of AE and AF are equivalent to twice the squares of AG and GE (II. 30.) But ACG being a right-angled triangle, the square of AG is equivalent to the squares of AC and CG (II. 14.), or twice the square of AG is equivalent to twice the squares of AC and CG. Wherefore the squares of AE and AF are equivalent to twice the three squares of AC, CG, and GE. Of these, the two squares of CG and GE are equivalent to the square of CE or CB, for the triangle CGE is right-angled. Consequently the squares of AE and AF are equivalent to twice the squares of AC and CB. But the straight line BD being cut equally at C and unequally at A, the squares of the unequal segments AB and AD are together equivalent to twice the squares of AC and CB (II. 25. cor.); whence the squares of AE and AF are together equivalent to the squares of AC and CB.





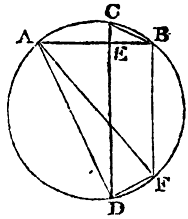
PROP. XXXV. THEOR.

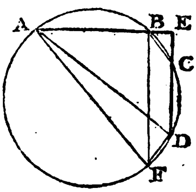
If through a point, within or without a circle, two perpendicular lines be drawn to meet the circumference, the squares of all the intercepted distances are together equivalent to the square of the diameter.

Let E be a point within or without the circle, and AB,

CD two straight lines drawn through it at right angles to the circumference; the squares of the four segments EA, EB, ED, and EC, are together equivalent to the square of the diameter of the circle

For draw BF parallel to CD, and join AF, AD, CB, and DF.





Because BF is parallel to CD, the arc BC is equal to the arc FD (III. 22.), and consequently the chord BC is also equal to the chord FD (III. 15. cor.); but BC being the hypotenuse of the right-angled triangle BEC, its square, or that of FD, is equivalent to the squares of EB and BC (II. 14.), and AED being likewise right-angled, the square of AD is equivalent to the squares of EA and ED. Whence the squares of AD and FD are equivalent to the four squares of EA, EB, ED, and EC. But since ED is parallel to BF, the interior angle ABF is equal to AED (I. 25.), and therefore a right angle; consequently ACBF is a semicircle (III. 25. cor.) and AF the diameter. The angle AFD in the opposite semicircle is hence a right angle (III. 25.), and the square of the diameter AF is equal to the squares of AD and FD, or to the sum of the squares of the four segments EA, EB, ED, and EC intercepted between the circumference and the point E.

PROP. XXXVI. THEOR.

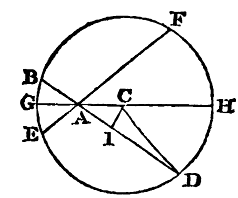
If through a point, within or without a circle, two straight lines be drawn to cut the circumference; the rectangle under the segments of the

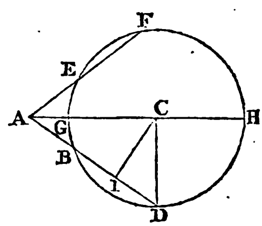
one is equivalent to that contained by the segments of the other.

Let the two straight lines AD and AF be extended through the point A, to cut the circumference BFD of a circle; the rectangle contained by the segments AE, AF of the one is equivalent to the rectangle under AB, AD the distances intercepted from A in the other.

For draw AC to the centre, and produce it both ways to terminate in the circumference at G and H; let fall the perpendicular CI upon BD (I. 6.) and join CD.

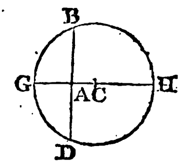
Because CI is perpendicular to AD, the difference between the squares of CA and CD, the sides of the triangle ACD is equivalent to the difference between the squares of the segments AI and ID the segments of the base (II. 29. cor.); and the difference between the squares of two straight lines being equivalent to the rectangle under their sum and their difference (II. 23.), the rectangle contained by the sum and difference of AC, CD is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the sum and difference of AI, ID. But since the radius CG is equal to CH, the sum of AC and CD is AH, and their difference is AG; and because the perpendicular CI bisects the chord BD (III. 5.), the sum of AI and ID is AD, and their difference AB. Wherefore the rectangle AH, AG is equivalent to the rectangle AB, AD. In the same way it is proved that the rectangle AH, AG is equivalent to the rectangle AE, AF; and consequently the rectangle AE, AF is equivalent to the rectangle AB, AD.



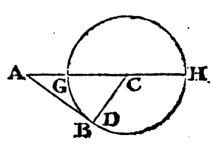


Or thus.

Draw the diameter GAH, and join CB and CD. And because BCD is an isosceles triangle and CA is drawn from the vertex C to a point in the direction of its base, the difference between the square of CA and CB or CG is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the segments AB, AD of the base (II. 27. and its cor.) In like manner, it is proved that the same difference between the square of CA and CG is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the segments AE, AF; whence the rectangle under AB, AD is equivalent to the rectangle under AE, AF.



Cor. 1. If the vertex A of the straight lines lie within the circle and the point I coincide with it, BD, being then at right angles to CA, is bisected at A (III. 5.), and the rectangle AB, AD is the same as the square of AB. Consequently the square of a perpendicular AB limited by the circumference is equivalent to the rectangle under the segments AG, AH of the diameter.

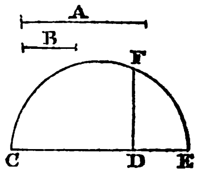


Cor. 2. If the vertex A lie without the circle and the point I coincide with B or D, the angle ABC being then a right angle, the incident line AB must be a tangent (III. 27.), and consequently the two points of section B and D must coalesce into a single point of contact. Wherefore the rectangle under the distances AB, AD becomes the same as the square of AB; and consequently the rectangle contained by the segments AG, AH of the diameter is equivalent to the square of the tangent AB.

PROP. XXXVII. PROB.

To construct a square equivalent to a given rectilineal figure.

Let the rectilineal figure be reduced by Prop. 6. and 8. Book II. to an equivalent rectangle, of which A and B are the two containing sides; draw an indefinite straight line CE, in which take the part CD equal to A and DE to B, on CE describe a semicircle, and erect the perpendicular DF from the diameter to meet the circumference: DF is the side of the square equivalent to the given rectilineal figure.

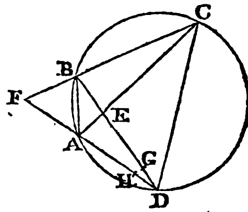


For by Cor. 1. to the last Proposition the square of the perpendicular DF is equivalent to the rectangle under the segments CD, DE of the diameter, and is consequently equivalent to the rectangle contained by the sides A and B of a rectangle that was made equivalent to the rectilineal figure.

PROP. XXXVIII. THEOR.

A quadrilateral figure may have a circle described about it, if the rectangles under the segments made by the intersection of its diagonals be equivalent, or if those rectangles are equivalent which are contained by the external segments formed by producing its opposite sides.

Let ABCD be a quadrilateral figure, of which AC and BD are the diagonals, and such that the rectangle AE, EC is equivalent to the rectangle BE, ED; a circle may be made to pass through the four points A, B, C, and D.



For describe a circle through the three points A, B, C (III. 11. cor.), and let it cut BD in G. Because AC and BG intersect each other within a circle, the rectangle AE, EC is equivalent to the rectangle BE, EG (III. 36.); but the rectangle AE, EC is by hypothesis equivalent to the rectangle BE, ED. Wherefore BE, EG is equivalent to BE, ED; and these rectangles have a common base BE, consequently (II. 3. cor.) their altitudes EG and ED are equal, and hence the point G is the same as D, or the circle passes through all the four points A, B, C, and D.

Again, if the opposite sides CB and DA be produced to meet at F, and the rectangle CF, FB be equal to DF, FA; a circle may be described about the figure.

For, as before, let a circle pass through the three points A, B, C, but cut AD in H. And from the property of the circle, the rectangle CF, FB is equivalent to HF, FA; but the rectangle CF, FB is also equivalent to DF, FA; whence the rectangle HF, FA is equivalent to DF, FA and the base HF equal to DF, or the point H is the same as D.

PROP. XXXIX. THEOR.

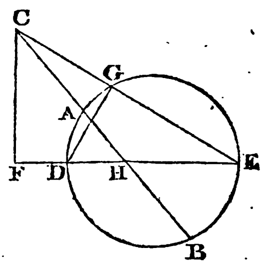
The rectangle under the segments of a chord is greater or less than the rectangle under the segments into which a perpendicular from the point of section divides a diameter, by the square of that

perpendicular—according as it lies without or within the circle.

Let the perpendicular CF be let fall from a point C in the chord ACB upon a diameter DE; the rectangle BC, CA is greater or less than the rectangle EF, FD, by the square of the perpendicular CF, according as this lies without or within the circle.

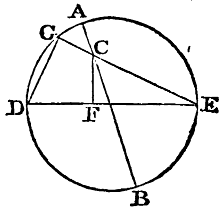
First, let the perpendicular CF lie without the circle; and join CE and DG.

The square of the hypotenuse CE is equivalent to the squares of FE and CF (II. 14.): But the square of CE is composed of the rectangles CE, EG, and CE, CG (II. 20.); and the square of FE is composed of the rectangles FE, ED, and FE, FD: Wherefore the rectangles CE, EG and CE, CG are equivalent to the rectangles FE, ED and FE, FD, together with the square of CF. And since EGD, standing in a semicircle, is a right angle (III. 26.), its adjacent angle CGD is also right, and the angle opposite to this at F is right; consequently (III. 2. cor.) a circle might be described through the four points C, G, D, F. Whence (III. 36.) the rectangle CE, EG is equivalent to FE, ED; and taking these from the terms of the former equality, there remains the rectangle CE, CG, that is, (III. 36.) AC, CB, equivalent to the rectangle FE, FD, together with the square of CF.



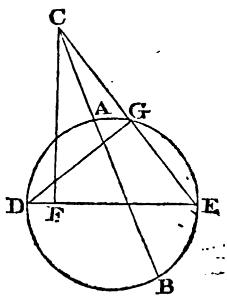
Next, let the perpendicular CF lie within the circle.

The same construction being made; the rectangle CE, EG is still equivalent to the rectangle FE, ED. But the rectangle CE, EG is (II. 20.) equivalent to the rectangle CE, CG, and the square of CE, or the squares of FE and



CF; and the rectangle FE, ED is equivalent to the rectangle FE, FD and the square of FE. From these equal quantities, therefore, take away the common square of FE, and there remains the rectangle CE, CG, or AC, CB, with the square of CF, equivalent to the rectangle FE, FD.

Lastly, if the perpendicular CF lie partly without and partly within the circle, the Proposition must be slightly modified.



The former construction being retained: Because the square of CE is equivalent to the squares of CF and FE, the rectangles CE, EG and CE, CG are together equivalent to the square of CF and the difference between the rectangle FE, ED and FE, FD; but the rectangle CE, EG is equivalent to the rectangle FE, ED, and consequently the rectangle CE, CG, or the rectangle AC, CB, is equivalent to the difference between the square of CF and the rectangle FE, FD.

Cor. In the first case, if the square of FH be equivalent to the rectangle FD, FE, the square of CH will be likewise equivalent to the rectangle CG, CE; for the rectangle AC, CB, being equivalent to the rectangle FD, FE, or the square of FH, together with the square of CF, must (II. 14.) be equivalent to the square of CH.

ELEMENTS

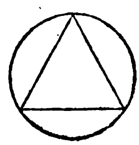
OF

GEOMETRY.

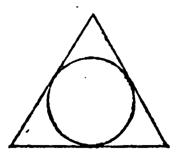
BOOK IV.

DEFINITIONS.

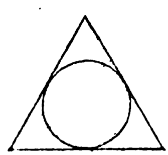
1. A rectilineal figure is said to be *inscri-*
d in a circle, when all its angular points
in the circumference.

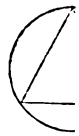


2. A rectilineal figure *circumscribes* a
cle, when each of its sides is a tan-
nt.



3. A circle is *inscribed* in a rectilineal
ire, when it touches all the sides.





4. A circle is *described* about a rectilineal figure or *circumscribes* it, when the circumference passes through all the angular points of the figure.

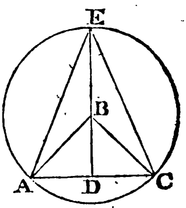
5. Polygons are *equilateral*, when their sides, in the order, are respectively equal: They are *equiangular*, equality obtains between their corresponding angles.

6. Polygons are said to be *regular*, when all theii and angles are equal.

PROP. I. PROB.

Given an isosceles triangle, to construct another on the same base, but with half the vertical angle.

Let ABC be an isosceles triangle standing on AC; it is required, on the same base, to construct another isosceles triangle, that shall have its vertical angle half of the angle ABC.

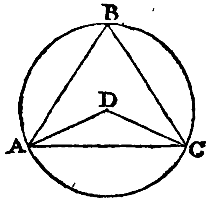


Bisect AC in D (I. 7.), join DB, which produce till BE be equal to BA or BC, and join AE, CE; AEC is the isosceles triangle that was required.

For the straight line BE being equal to BA and BC, the point B is the centre of a circle which passes through A, E, and C; and consequently the angle ABC is double of AEC at the circumference (III. 19.), or the vertical angle AEC is half of ABC. But the triangles AED and CED, having the side DA equal to DC, the side DE common to both, and the right angle ADE equal to CDE (III. 5.) are equal, and consequently AE is equal to CE. Wherefore the triangle AEC is likewise isosceles.

PROP. II. PROB.

Given an acute-angled isosceles triangle, to construct another on the same base, which shall have double the vertical angle.



Let ABC be an acute-angled isosceles triangle: it is required on the base AC to construct another isosceles triangle having its vertical angle double of the angle ABC.

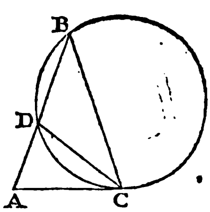
Describe a circle through the three points A, B, and C (III. 11. cor.), and draw AD, CD to the centre D; the triangle ADC is the isosceles triangle required. For the angle ADC, being at the centre of the circle, is double of ABC, the angle at the circumference (III. 19.)

PROP. III. THEOR.

If an isosceles triangle have each angle at the base double of the vertical angle, its base will be equal to the greater segment of one of its sides divided by a medial section.

Let ABC be an isosceles triangle which has each of the angles BAC, BCA double of the vertical angle ABC; the base AC is equal to the greater segment of the side BA formed by a medial section.

For draw CD to bisect the angle BCA (I. 5.), and about the triangle BDC describe a circle (III. 11. cor.)



Because the angle BCA is double of ABC and has been bisected by CD, the angles ACD, BCD are each of them equal to CBD, and consequently the side BD is equal to CD (I. 9.) But the triangles BAC and DAC, having the angle ACD equal to ABC, and the angle at A common to both, must have also (I. 34. cor. 1.) the remaining angle

CDA equal to BCA or CAD; whence the triangle DAC is likewise isosceles, and the side AC equal to CD; and CD being equal to BD, therefore AC is equal to BD. And since the angle ACD is equal to CBD in the alternate segment of the circle, the straight line AC touches the circumference at C (III. 28. cor.); wherefore the rectangle contained by AB and AD is equivalent to the square of AC (III. 36. cor.) or the square of BD. Consequently the base AC of this isosceles triangle is equal to the greater segment BD of a side AB cut by a medial section.

Cor. Hence the interior triangle ACD is likewise isosceles and of the same nature with ABC, having the greater segment of AB for its side and the smaller segment for its base.

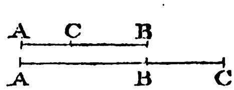
PROP. IV. PROB.

Given either one of the sides or the base, to construct an isosceles triangle, so that each of the angles at the base may be double of its vertical angle.

First, let one of the sides AB be given, to construct such an isosceles triangle.

Divide AB by a medial section at C (II. 26.), and on CB, as a base with the distance AB for each of the sides, describe an isosceles triangle (I. 1.)

Next, let the base AB be given, to construct an isosceles triangle of this nature.



Produce AB to C, such that the rectangle AC, CB be equal to the square of AB (II. 26. cor. 2.), and on the base AB, with the distance AC for each of the sides, describe an isosceles triangle.

These isosceles triangles will fulfil the conditions requi-

red. For it is evident, from the last Proposition, that, isosceles triangles constituted on CB and AB, with each of the angles at the base double the vertical angle, would have AB and AC for their sides, and consequently must coincide with the triangles now described (I. 2.)

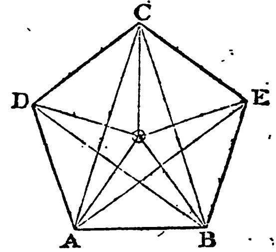
Cor. Hence an isosceles triangle of this kind has its vertical angle equal to the fifth part of two right angles; for each of the angles at the base being double of the vertical angle, they are both equal to four times it, and consequently this vertical angle is the fifth part of all the angles of the triangle, or of two right angles.

PROP. V. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular pentagon.

Let AB be the straight line on which it is required to describe a regular pentagon.

On AB erect the isosceles triangle ACB having each of the angles at the base double of its vertical angle (IV. 4.), on AB again construct another isosceles triangle whose vertical angle AOB is double of ACB (IV. 2.), and about the vertex O place the isosceles triangles AOD, DOC, COE, and EOB (I. 1.); these triangles, with AOB, will compose a regular pentagon.



For the angle AOB, being the double of ACB, which is the fifth part of two right angles (IV. 4. cor.), must be equal to the fifth part of four right

angles; and consequently five angles, each of them equal to AOB, will adapt themselves about the point O. But the bases of those central triangles, and which form the sides of the pentagon, are all equal; and the angles at their bases being likewise equal, they are equal in the collective pairs which constitute the internal angles of the figure: It is therefore a regular pentagon.

Or thus.

Having erected the isosceles triangle ACB, from the centre A with the distance AC describe an arc of a circle, and from the centre B with the same distance describe another arc, and from C inflect the straight lines CE, CD equal to AB: The points D, E mark out the pentagon. For it is apparent, that, the three straight lines AO, BO, and CO being equal, (IV. 2.) and the triangles ACB, CAE, and CBD being likewise equal, the point O must have the same relation to all of them, and consequently the central triangles COD, and COE are equal to AOB.

PROP. VI. PROB.

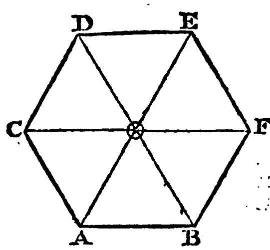
On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular hexagon.

Let AB be the given straight line, on which it is required to describe a regular hexagon.

On AB construct the equilateral triangle AOB (I. 1.), and repeat equal triangles about the vertex O; these triangles will together compose the hexagon required.

Because AOB is an equilateral triangle, each of its

angles is equal to the third part of two right angles (I. 34. cor. 1.); wherefore the vertical angle AOB is the sixth part of four right angles, or six of such angles may be placed about the point O. But the bases of the triangles AOB, AOC, COD, DOE, EOF, and BOF are all equal; and so are the angles at the bases, and which, taken by pairs, form the internal angles of the figure BACDEF. This figure is, therefore, a regular hexagon.

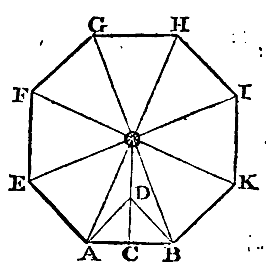


PROP. VII. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular octagon.

Let AB be the given straight line, on which it is required to describe a regular octagon.

Bisect AB by the perpendicular CD (I. 5.), which make equal to CA or CB, join DA and DB, produce CD until DO be equal to DA or DB, draw AO and BO, thus forming an angle equal to the half of ADB (IV. 1), and about the vertex O repeat the equal triangles AOB, AOE, EOF, FOG, GOH, HOI, IOK, and KOB to compose the octagon.



For the distances AD, BD are evidently equal; and because CA, CD, and CB are all equal, the angle ADB is con-

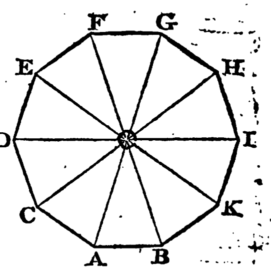
tained in a semicircle, and is, therefore, a right angle (III. 19.) Consequently AOB is equal to the half of a right angle, and eight such angles will adapt themselves about the point O. Whence the figure BAEFGHIK, having eight equal sides and equal angles, is a regular octagon.

PROP. VIII. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular decagon.

Let AB be the straight line, on which it is required to describe a regular decagon.

On AB construct an isosceles triangle having each of the angles at its base double of the vertical angle (IV. 4.), and about the point O place a series of triangles all equal to AOB: A regular decagon will result from this composition.



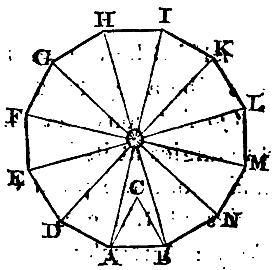
For the vertical angle AOB of the isosceles triangle is equal to the fifth part of two right angles (IV. 4. cor.), or to the tenth part of four right angles; whence ten such angles may be formed about the point O. The figure BACDEFGHIK, having therefore ten equal sides and equal angles, is a regular decagon.

PROP. IX. PROB.

On a given finite straight line, to describe a regular dodecagon.

Let AB be the straight line on which it is required to describe a regular twelve-sided figure.

On AB construct the equilateral triangle ACB (I. 1.), and again the isosceles triangle AOB, having its vertical angle equal to the half of ACB (IV. 1.), and repeat this triangle AOB about the point O; a regular dodecagon will be thus formed.



For ACB being an equilateral triangle, each of its angles is the third part of two right angles (I. 34. cor. 1.); consequently the angle AOB is the sixth part of two right angles or the twelfth part of four right angles, and twelve such angles can, therefore, be placed about the vertex O.

Cor. Hence a regular twenty-sided figure may be described on a given straight line, by first constructing on it an isosceles having each of the angles at the base double of the vertical angle, and then erecting another isosceles with its vertical angle equal to the half of this. And, by thus changing the elementary triangle, a regular polygon may be always described, with twice the number of sides.

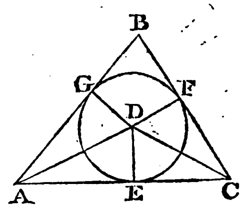
PROP. X. PROB.

In a given triangle, to inscribe a circle.

Let ABC be a triangle, in which it is required to inscribe a circle.

Draw AD and CD to bisect the angles CAB and ACB (I. 5.), and from their point of concourse D, with its distance DE from the base, describe the circle EFG: This circle will touch the triangle internally.

For let fall the perpendiculars DG and DF upon the sides AB and BC (I. 6.) The triangles ADE, ADG, having the angle DAE equal to DAG, the right angle DEA equal to DGA, and the interjacent side AD common, are equal (I. 23.), and therefore the side DE is equal to DG. In the same manner, it is proved from the equality of the triangles CDE, CDF, that DE is equal to DF; consequently DG is equal to DF, and the circle passes through the three points E, G, and F. But it also touches the sides of the triangle in those points, for the angles DEA, DGA, and DFC are all of them right angles (III. 27. cor.)



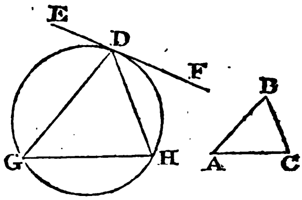
PROP. XI. PROB.

In a given circle, to inscribe a triangle equiangular to a given triangle.

Let GDH be a circle in which it is required to inscribe

a triangle that shall have its angles equal to those of the triangle ABC.

Assuming any point D in the circumference of the circle, draw the tangent EDF (I. 38. and III. 27.); and make the angles EDG, FDH equal to BCA, BAC (I. 4.), and join GH: The triangle GDH is equiangular to ABC.



For EF being a tangent and DG drawn from the point of contact, the angle EDG, which was made equal to BCA, is equal to the angle DHG in the alternate segment (III. 28.); consequently DHG is equal to BCA. And for the same reason, the angle DGH is equal to BAC; wherefore the remaining angle GDH of the triangle GHD is equal to the remaining angle ABC of the triangle ACB (I. 34. cor.), and these triangles are equiangular.

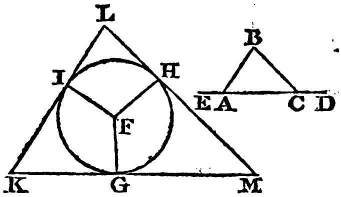
PROP. XII. PROB.

About a given circle, to describe a triangle equiangular to a given triangle.

Let GIH be a circle, about which it is required to describe a triangle having its angles equal to those of the triangle ABC.

Draw any radius FG, and with it make the angles GFI, GFH equal to the adjacent angles BAE, BCD (I. 4.) of the triangle ABC, and from the points G, I, and H draw the tangents KM, KL, and LM to form the triangle KLM: This triangle is equiangular to ABC.

For all the angles of the quadrilateral figure KIFG being equal to four right angles (I. 34. cor.), and the angles KIF and KGF being each a right angle (III. 27.), the remaining angles GKI and GFI are together equal to two right angles, and are consequently equal to the angles BAC and BAE on the same side of the straight line ED. But the angle GFI was made equal to BAE; whence GKI is equal to CAB. In like manner, it is proved that the angle GMH is equal to ACB; and the angles at K and M being thus equal to BAC and BCA, the remaining angle at L is equal to that at B (I. 34. cor.), and the two triangles are therefore equiangular.



PROP. XIII. PROB.

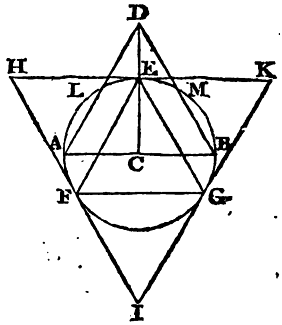
In and about a given circle, to inscribe and circumscribe an equilateral triangle.

Let AEB be a circle, in which it is required to inscribe an isosceles triangle.

Draw the diameter AB, describe the equilateral triangle ADB (I. 1.), join CD meeting the circumference in E, draw EF, EG parallel to AD, BD (I. 26.), and join FG: The triangle EFG is equilateral.

For the triangles ADC, BDC having the two sides DA, AC equal to DB, BC, and the third side DC common to both, are equal (I. 2.), and the angle DCA is equal to DCB; whence the arc AE is equal to BE (III. 15.); and

the triangle ADB being likewise equiangular (I. 8. cor. 1.), the angle DBA is equal to DAB, and the arc AEM equal to BEL (III. 20. cor.) and the remaining arc ME equal to LE. But EF and EG being parallel to LA and MB, the arcs AF and BG are equal to LE and ME (III. 22.), and consequently equal to each other. Wherefore the whole arcs EAF and EBG are equal, and the angles EGF and EFG which



stand on these; and the angle FEG being equal to ADB (I. 33.) or the third part of two right angles (I. 34. cor.), each of the equal remaining angles EFG and EGF must also be the third part of two right angles; whence the inscribed triangle FEG is equilateral.

Again, let it be required to describe an equilateral triangle about the circle AEB.

The same construction remaining; at the points F, E, and G, apply the tangents HI, HK, and KI, to form the circumscribing triangle IHK: This triangle is equilateral.

For because IH is a tangent and FG is inflected from the point of contact, the angle IFG is equal to the angle FEG in the alternate segment (III. 28.), and therefore IH is parallel to EG (I. 25. cor.) In like manner it is proved, that HK, KI are parallel to GF, FE, and consequently the angles of the triangle IHK are equal to those of FEG (I. 33.), and therefore equal to each other.

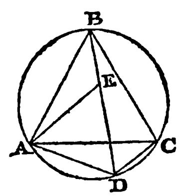
Cor. Hence the circumscribing equilateral triangle contains four times that which is inscribed; for the figures EFIG, EHFG, and EFGK are evidently equal rhombuses, and contain equilateral triangles which are all equal. Hence

also the side of the circumscribing, is double of that of the inscribed, equilateral triangle.

PROP. XIV. THEOR.

A straight line drawn from the vertex of an equilateral triangle inscribed in a circle to any point in the opposite circumference, is equal to the two chords inflected from the same point to the extremities of the base.

Let ABC be an equilateral triangle inscribed in a circle, and BD, AD, and CD chords drawn from it to a point D in the circumference; BD is equal to AD and CD taken together.



Make DE equal to DA, and join AE. The angle ADB, being equal to ACB in the same segment (III. 20.), is equal to the third part of two right angles (I. 34. cor.) But the triangle ADE being isosceles by construction, the angles DAE, DEA at its base are equal (I. 8.), and each of them is, therefore, equal to half of the remaining two thirds of two right angles, or to the third part. Consequently ADE is an equilateral triangle (I. 9. cor.), and the angle DAE equal to CAB; take CAE from both, and there remains the angle DAC equal to EAB; but the angle ABD is equal to ACD in the same segment. And thus the triangles ADC and AEB have the angles DAC, DCA equal to EAB, EBA, and the interjacent side AC equal to AB; they are consequently equal (I. 20.), and the side DC is equal to EB. But DE was made equal to DA; therefore DA and DC are together equal to DE and EB or to DB.

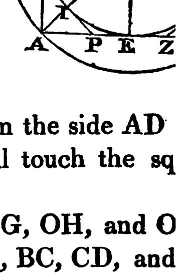
PROP. XV. PROB.

About and in a given square, to circumscri inscribe a circle.

Let ABCD be a figure about which it is require cumscribe a circle.

Draw the diagonals AC, DB intersecting each O, and from that point with the distance AO the circle ABCD : This circle will circumscr square.

Because the diagonals of the square ABCD a and bisect each other (I. 31. and its cor.), the straight lines OA, OB, OC, and OD are all equal, and consequently the circle described through A passes through the other points B, C, and D.



Again, let it be required to inscribe a circle in the square ABCD.

From O the intersection of the diagonals and with its distance from the side AD the circle EGHF: This circle will touch the sq ternally.

For let fall the perpendiculars OG, OH, and O And because the straight lines AB, BC, CD, and equal, they are equally distant from the centre exterior circle (III. 12.); wherefore the perpen OE, OG, OH, and OF are all equal, and the circle passes through the points G, H, and F; bu wise touches the sides of the square, since they pendicular to the radii drawn from O (III. 27.)

Cor. Hence an octagon may be inscribed

square. For let tangents be applied at the points I, K, L, and M, where the diagonals cut the interior circle. It is evident, that the triangle AOE is equal to DOE, IOP to EOP, and EOZ to NOZ; whence the angles POE and ZOE are equal, being the halves of EOA and EOD, and consequently the triangles PEO and ZEO are equal. Wherefore PZ, the double of PE, is equal to PQ, the double of PI; and the angle EZM is, for a like reason, equal to EPI. And, in this manner, all the sides and all the angles about the eight-sided figure PQRSTVYZ are proved to be equal.

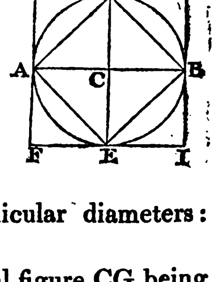
PROP. XVI. PROB.

In and about a given circle, to inscribe and circumscribe a square.

Let EADB be a circle in which it is required to inscribe a square.

Draw the diameter AB, the perpendicular BD (I. 5. cor.), and join AD, DB, BE, and EA: The inscribed figure ADBE is a square.

The angles about the centre C, being right angles, are equal to each other, and are, therefore, subtended by equal chords AD, DB, BE, and AE (III. 15.); but one of the angles ADB, being in a semicircle, is a right angle (III. 25.), and consequently ADBE is a square.



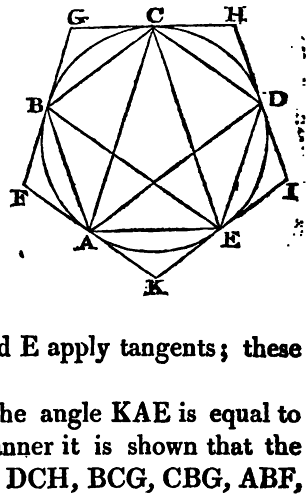
Next, let it be required to circumscribe a square about the circle.

Apply tangents FG, GH, HI, and FI at the extremities of the perpendicular diameters: These will form a square.

For all the angles of the quadrilateral figure CG being

angular to this, inscribe the triangle ACE within the circle (IV. 11.), draw AD, EB bisecting the angles CAE, CEA (I. 5.), and join AB, BC, CD, and DE: The figure ABCDE is a regular pentagon.

For the angles AEB, BEC are each the half of CEA, and therefore equal to ACE; but the angles EAD, DAC are likewise equal to ACE. Hence these angles, being all equal, must stand on equal arcs (III. 20. cor.); and the chords of these arcs, or the sides AB, BC, CD, DE, and AE are equal (III. 15. cor.) And because the segments EAB, ABC, BCD, CDE, and DEA are evidently equal, the interior angles of the figure are all equal (III. 20.), and it is, therefore, a regular pentagon.



Next, let it be required to circumscribe a regular pentagon about the circle.

At the points A, B, C, D, and E apply tangents; these will form a regular pentagon.

For FAK being a tangent, the angle KAE is equal to ACE (III. 28.); and in like manner it is shown that the angles AEK, DEI, EDI, CDH, DCH, BCG, CBG, ABF, BAF are all equal to ACE. The isosceles triangles AKE, BFA, having, therefore, the angles at the base equal and the bases themselves AE, AB,—are equal (I. 23.); for the same reason, the triangles BGC, CHD, DIE, EKA, are equal. Whence the internal angles of the figure are equal, and its sides being double of those of accrescent triangles are likewise equal: The figure is, therefore, a regular pentagon.

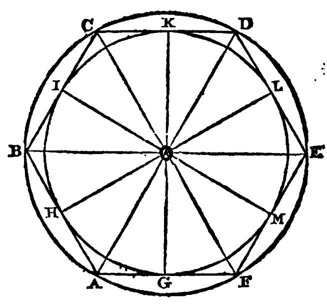
PROP. XIX. PROB.

In and about a regular hexagon, to inscribe and circumscribe a circle.

Let ABCDEF be a regular hexagon, in which it is required to inscribe a circle.

Draw AO and FO, bisecting the angles BAF and AFE (I. 5.); and from the point of intersection O, with its distance from the side AF, describe a circle: This circle will touch the hexagon internally.

For let fall perpendiculars from O upon the sides of the figure. It may be demonstrated, as in Prop. XVII. that the triangles AOB, BOC, COD, DOE, and EOF are all equal to AOF; and, in like manner, it will appear that the intermediate bisected triangles are equal. Hence the perpendiculars OG, OH, OI, OK, OL, and OM, are all equal, and a circle must touch these at the points G, H, I, K, L, and M.



Again, let it be required to describe a circle about the hexagon.

From the same point O, as a centre, with the distance OA, describe a circle, which must pass through the points B, C, D, E, and F; for the straight lines OA, OB, OC, OD, OE, and OF were proved to be equal.

Cor. Hence, in any regular polygon, the centre of the inscribing and circumscribing circle is the same, and may be determined in general, by drawing lines to bisect the adjacent angles of the figure.

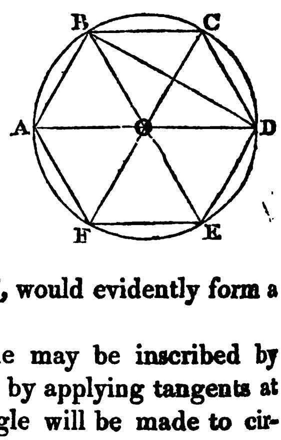
PROP. XX. PROB.

To inscribe a regular hexagon in a given circle.

Let it be required, in the circle FBD, to inscribe a hexagon.

Draw the radius OA, on which construct the equilateral triangle ABO (I. 1.), and repeat the equal triangles about the vertex O: These triangles will compose a hexagon.

For the triangle ABO, being equilateral, each of its angles, AOB, is the third part of two right angles; and consequently six of such angles may be placed about the centre O. But the bases of the triangles AOB, BOC, COD, DOE, and EOF form the sides of the figure, and the angles at those bases its internal angles; wherefore it is a regular hexagon.



Cor. 1. Tangents applied at the points A, B, C, D, E, and F, would evidently form a regular circumscribing hexagon.

Cor. 2. An equilateral triangle may be inscribed by joining the alternate points; and by applying tangents at those points an equilateral triangle will be made to circumscribe the circle. The side AB of an inscribed hexagon is equal to the radius; and since ABD is a right-angled triangle, and the squares of AB and BD are equal to the square of AD or to four times the square of AO, the square of BD the side of an inscribed equilateral triangle is triple the square of the radius.

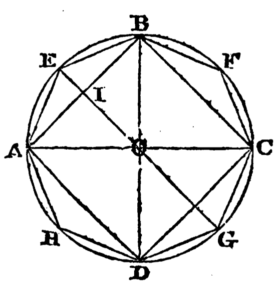
Cor. 3. The perimeter of the inscribed hexagon is equal to six times the radius or three times the diameter of the

circle. The circumference of the circle, therefore, from its perpetual curvature, being greater, any intermediate system of straight lines (I. 18.) is more than triple in length to the diameter.

PROP. XXI. THEOR.

The square of the side of a regular octagon inscribed in a circle, is equivalent to the rectangle contained by the radius and the difference between the diameter and the side of the inscribed square.

Let ABCD be a square inscribed in a circle, and AEBFCGDH an octagon, which is formed evidently by the bisection of the quadrants AB, BC, CD, and DA: The square of AE is equivalent to the rectangle under AO and the difference between AB and AC.



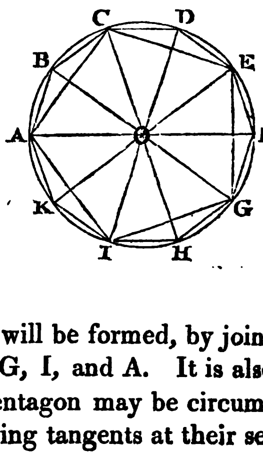
For draw the diameter EG. It is manifest, that the triangles AIO and BIO are right-angled and isosceles; and because AO is equal to EO, and AI perpendicular to it,—the square of AE is equivalent to twice the rectangle under EO, and EI (II. 31. cor.) or the rectangle under AO and twice EI. But EI is the difference of EO and IO, and twice EI is, therefore, equal to the difference of twice EO or AC and twice IO or AB. Whence the square of AE, the side of the octagon, is equivalent to the rectangle under radius and the difference of the diameter and AB the side of the inscribed square.

PROP. XXII. PROB.

To inscribe a regular decagon in a given circle.

Let ADH be a circle, in which it is required to inscribe a regular decagon.

Draw the radius OA, and with OA as its side describe the isosceles triangle AOB, having each of its angles at the base double of its vertical angle (IV. 4.), repeat the equal triangles about the centre O: These triangles will compose a decagon.



For the vertical angle AOB of the component isosceles triangle, is the fifth part of two right angles (IV. 4. cor.), and consequently ten such angles can be planted about the point A. But the sides and angles of the resulting figure, are all evidently equal; it is, therefore, a regular decagon.

Cor. Hence a regular pentagon will be formed, by joining the alternate points A, C, E, G, I, and A. It is also manifest, that a decagon and a pentagon may be circumscribed about the circle, by applying tangents at their several angular points.

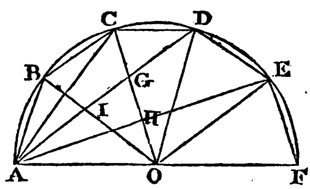
PROP. XXIII. THEOR.

The square of the side of a pentagon inscribed in

a circle, is equivalent to the squares of the sides of the inscribed hexagon and decagon.

Let ABCDEF be a portion of a decagon inscribed in a circle, of which AF is the diameter; the square of AC, the side of the inscribed pentagon, is equivalent to the square of AB the side of the inscribed decagon and the square of the radius AO, which is equal to the side of the inscribed hexagon.

For join AD, AE, and draw OB, OC, OD, and OE. The angle FAD at the circumference, being half of the angle FOD at the centre (III. 19.), is equal to the angle AOB; and for the same reason, the angle FAB, being half of FOB, is equal to FOD or COA. The triangles ABO and AGO, having, therefore, the angles AOB, OAB equal to OAG, AOG, and the side AO common to both, are equal (I. 23.) and isosceles, and consequently the base AB is equal to OG. But the angles FAD and EAD, standing on equal arcs, are equal (III. 20. cor.); wherefore the triangles OAH and GAH, having the side AG equal to AO, the side AH common, and the contained angle OAH equal to GAH, are equal (I. 3.), and hence

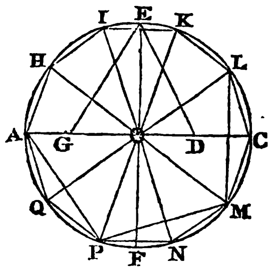


OH is equal to GH, and the angles AHO and AHG are equal and right angles. And because AO is equal to CO and AH perpendicular to it, the square of AC is equivalent to twice the rectangle under OC and CH (II. 31. cor.) or the rectangle under OC and twice CH, that is, the sum of OC and CG. The square of AC is, therefore, equivalent to the square of OC and the rectangle under OC and CG; but OG being equal to AB, the radius OC is divided by a medial section in G, and consequently the

rectangle OC, CG is equivalent to the square of OG or AB. Whence the square of AC is equivalent to the two squares of AO and AB.

Cor. 1. The triple chord AD of the decagon, is equal to the sides AO and AB of the inscribed hexagon and decagon. For AO being equal to DO, the angle OAD is equal to ODA (I. 8.); but OAD, or FAD, is equal to the angle DOC (III. 19.), and consequently the angle DOG is equal to ODG, and the side OG equal to DG (I. 9.) Wherefore AD, being equal to AG and GD, is equal to AO with OG or AB.

Cor. 2. Hence the sides of the inscribed decagon and pentagon may be found by a single construction. For draw the perpendicular diameters AC and EF, bisect OC in D, join DE, make DG equal to it, and join GE. It is evident, that AO is cut medially in G (II. 26.), and consequently that OG is equal to a side of the inscribed decagon. But GOE being a right-angled triangle, the square of GE is equivalent to the squares of GO and OE (II. 14.), or the squares of the sides of the decagon and hexagon; whence GE is equal to the side of the inscribed pentagon. It also follows that CG is equal to CI or CP, the triple chords of the inscribed decagon.

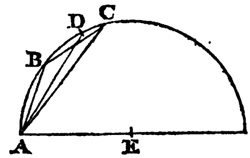


PROP. XXIV. PROB.

In a given circle, to inscribe regular polygons of fifteen and of thirty sides.

Let AB and BC be the sides of an inscribed decagon, and AD the side of a hexagon inscribed; the arc BD will be the fifteenth part of the circumference of the circle, and DC the thirtieth part.

For, if the circumference were divided into thirty equal portions, the arc AB would be equal to three of these and the arc AD to five; consequently the excess BD is equal to two of these portions, or it is the fifteenth part of the whole circumference. Again, the double arc ABC being equal to six portions and ABD to five, the defect DC is equal to one portion, or to the thirtieth part of the circumference.



Scholium. From the inscription of the square, the pentagon, and the hexagon,—may be derived that of a variety of other regular polygons: For, by continually bisecting the intercepted arcs and inserting new chords, the inscribed figure will, at each successive operation, have the number of its sides doubled. Hence polygons will arise of 6, 8, and 10 sides; then, of 12, 16, and 20; next, of 24, 32, and 40; again, of 48, 64, and 80; and so forth repeatedly. The excess of the arc of the hexagon and above that of the decagon, gives the arc of a fifteen-sided figure; and the continued bisection of this arc will mark out polygons with 30, 60, or 120 equal sides, in perpetual succession. The same results might also be obtained from the differences of the preceding arcs.

Of the regular polygons, three only are susceptible of perfect adaptation, and capable therefore of covering, by their repeated addition, a plane surface. These are the equilateral triangle, the square, and the hexagon. The angles of an equilateral triangle are each two thirds of a right angle, those of a square are right angles, and the angles of a hexagon are each equal to four third parts of a right angle. Hence there may be constituted about a

point, six equilateral triangles, four squares, and three hexagons. But no other regular polygon can admit of a like disposition. The pentagon, for instance, having each of its angles equal to six-fifths of a right angle, would not fill up the whole space about a point, on being repeated three times; yet it would do more than cover that space, if added four times. On the other hand, since each angle of a polygon which has more than six sides must exceed four third parts of a right angle, three such polygons can not stand round a point. Nor can the space about a point ever be bisected by the application of any regular polygons, of whatever number of sides; for their angles are necessarily each less than two right angles.

ELEMENTS

OF

GEOMETRY.

BOOK V.

OF PROPORTION.

THE preceding Books treat of magnitude as *concrete*, or having mere extension; and the simpler properties of lines, of angles, and of surfaces, were deduced, by a continuous process of reasoning, grounded originally on superposition. But this mode of investigation, however satisfactory to the mind, is, from its nature, very limited and laborious. By introducing the idea of *Number* into geometry, a new scene is opened, and a far wider prospect rises into view. Magnitude, being considered as *discrete*, or composed of integrant parts, becomes assimilated to *multitude;* and under that aspect, it

presents a vast system of relations, which may be traced out with the utmost facility.

Numbers were first employed, to denote the collection of distinct, though kindred, objects; but the subdivision of extent, whether actually effected or only conceived, bestowing a sort of individuality, they came afterwards to acquire a more comprehensive application. In comparing together two quantities of the same kind, the one may contain the other, or be contained by it; that is, the one may result from the repeated addition of the other, or it may in its turn produce this other by a successive composition. The one quantity is, therefore, equal, either to so many times the other, or to a certain aliquot part of it.

Such seems to be the simplest of numerical relations. It is very confined, however, in its application, and is evidently, in that shape, insufficient altogether for the purpose of general comparison. But this object is attained, by adopting some intermediate reference. Though a quantity neither contain another exactly, nor be contained by it; there may yet exist a third and smaller quantity, which is at once capable of *measuring* them both. This *measure* corresponds to the arithmetical unit; and as *number* denotes the collection of units, so *quantity* may be viewed as the aggregate of its component measures.

But mathematical quantities are not all susceptible of such perfect mensuration. Two quantities may be conceived to be so constituted, as not to admit another which will measure them completely, or be contained in both without leaving a remainder. Yet this apparent imperfection, which proceeds entirely from the infinite variety ascribed to possible magnitude, creates no real obstacle to the progress of accurate science. The measure or primary element, being assumed still smaller and smaller, its corresponding remainder must be perpetually diminished. This continued exhaustion will hence approach its absolute term, nearer than any assignable difference.

Quantities in general can, therefore, either exactly or to any required degree of precision, be represented abstractly by numbers; and thus the science of Geometry is at last brought under the dominion of Arithmetic.

It is obvious, that quantities of any kind must have the same composition, when each contains its measure the same number of times. But quantities, viewed in pairs, may be considered as having a similar composition, if the corresponding terms of each pair contain its measure equally. Two pairs of quantities of a similar composition, being thus formed by the same distinct aggregations of their elementary parts, constitute a *proportion*.

DEFINITIONS.

1. Quantities are *homogeneous* which can be added together.

2. One quantity is said to *contain* another when the subtraction of this,—continued if necessary,—leaves no remainder.

3. A quantity which is contained in another, is said to *measure* it.

4. The quantity which is measured by another, is called its *multiple*; and that which measures the other, its *submultiple*.

5. *Like* multiples and submultiples are those which contain their measures equally, or which equally measure their corresponding compounds.

6. Quantities are *commensurable* which have a finite common measure; they are *incommensurable*, if they will admit of no such measure.

7. That relation which one quantity is conceived to bear to another in regard to their composition, is named a *ratio*.

8. When both terms of comparison are equal, it is called a ratio of *equality*; if the first of these be greater

than the second, it is a ratio of *majority;* and if the first be less than the second, it is a ratio of *minority.*

9. The identity of ratios constitutes a *proportion* or *analogy.*

10. Four quantities are said to be *proportional,* when a submultiple of the first is contained in the second as often as a like submultiple of the third is contained in the fourth.

11. Of proportional quantities, the first of each pair is named the *antecedent,* and the second the *consequent.*

12. The antecedents are *homologous* terms; and so are the consequents.

13. One antecedent is said *to be* to its consequent, *as* another antecedent *to* its consequent.

14. The first and last terms of a proportion are called the *extremes,* and the intermediate ones, the *means.*

15. A ratio is *direct,* if it follows the order of the terms compared; it is *inverse* or *reciprocal,* when it holds a reversed order.

Thus, if the ratio of A to B be *direct,* that of B to A is the *inverse* or *reciprocal* ratio.

16. Quantities form a *continued proportion,* when the intervening terms stand in the double relation of consequents and antecedents.

17. When a proportion consists of three terms, the middle one is said to be a *mean proportional* between the two extremes.

18. The ratio which one quantity has to another may be considered as *compounded* of all the connecting ratios among any interposed quantities.

Thus, the ratio of A to D is viewed as *compounded* of that of A to B, that of B to C, and that of C to D.

19. Of quantities in a continued proportion, the first is said to have to the third a ratio the *duplicate* of what it has to the second; to have to the fourth, a *triplicate* ratio; to the fifth, a *quadruplicate* ratio; and so forth, according to the number of equal ratios inserted between the extreme terms.

20. If quantities be continually proportional, the ratio of the first to the second is called the *subduplicate* of the ratio of the first to the third, the *subtriplicate* of the ratio of the first to the fourth, &c.

21. A straight line is said to be cut in extreme and mean ratio, when the one segment is a mean proportional between the other segment and the whole line.

To facilitate the language of demonstration relative to numbers or abstract quantities, it is expedient to adopt a clear and concise mode of notation.

1. The sign $=$ expresses *equality*, $>$ *majority*, and $<$ *minority*: Thus $A=B$ denotes that A is equal to B, $A>B$ signifies that A is greater than B, and $A<B$ imports that A is less than B.

2. The signs $+$ and $-$ mark the addition and subtraction of the quantities to which they are prefixed; Thus, $A+B$ denotes that B is to be joined to A, and $A-B$ signifies that B is to be taken away from A. Sometimes these two symbols are combined together: Thus, $A\pm B$ represents either the sum of A and B or the excess of A above B.

3. To express multiplication, the quantities are placed close together; or they may be connected by the point (.), or the cross $\times$: Thus, AB, or A.B, or $A\times B$, denotes the product of A by B; and ABC indicates the result of the continued multiplication of A by B, and of this product again by C.

4. When the same number is repeatedly multiplied, the product is termed its *power*; and the number itself, in reference to that power, is called the *root*. The notation is here still farther abridged, by retaining only a single letter with a small figure over it, to mark how often it is understood to be repeated: This figure serves also to distinguish the order of the power. Thus AA, or A^2, signifies that A is multiplied by A, and that the product is the

second power of A; and AAA, or A^3, in like manner, imports that AA is again multiplied by A, and that the result is the *third power* of A.

5. The roots are denoted by prefixing a contracted *r* or the symbol $\surd$. Thus $\surd A$ or $\sqrt[2]{A}$ marks the *second root* of A, or that number of which A is the second power; $\sqrt[3]{A}$ signifies the *third root* of A, or the number which has A for its third power.

6. To represent the multiplication of complex quantities, they are included by a parenthesis. Thus, $A(B+C-D)$ denotes that the amount of $B+C-D$, considered as a single quantity, is multiplied into A.

7. Ratios and analogies are expressed, by inserting points in pairs between the terms. Thus $A:B$ denotes the ratio of A to B, and the compound symbols $A:B::C:D$, signify that the ratio of A to B is the same as that of C to D, or that A is to B as C to D.

PROP. I. THEOR.

The product of a number into the sum or difference of two numbers, is equal to the sum or difference of its products into those numbers.

Let A, B, and C be three numbers; the product of the sum or difference of B and C by the number A, is equal to the sum or difference of the products AB and AC.

For the product AB is the same as each unit contained in B repeated A times, and the product AC is the same as the units in C likewise repeated A times; whence the sum of the products AB and AC, is equal to the units contained in both B and C, all repeated A times, or it is equal to the sum of the numbers B and C multiplied by A.

Again, for the same reason, the difference between the products AB and AC must be equal to the difference between the units contained in B and in C, repeated A times; that is, it must be equal to the difference between the numbers B and C multiplied by A.

Cor. 1. Hence a number which measures any two numbers, will measure also their sum and their difference.

Cor. 2. It is hence manifest, that the first part of the proposition may be extended to more numbers than two; or that $AB+AC+AD+$, &c.$=A(B+C+D+$, &c.)

PROP. II. THEOR.

The product which arises from the continued multiplication of any numbers, is the same, in whatever order that operation be performed.

Let A and B be two numbers; the product AB is equal to BA.

For the product AB is the same as each unit in B added together A times, that is, the same as A itself repeated B times, or BA.

Next, let there be three numbers A, B, and C; the products ABC, ACB, BAC, BCA, CAB, and CBA are all equal.

For put D=AB=BA (V. 1.); then DC=CD, that is, ABC=CAB, and BAC=CBA.

Again, put E=AC=CA; then EB=BE, that is, ACB =BAC, and CAB=BCA.

Lastly, put F=BC=CB; then FA=AF, that is, BCA =ABC, and CBA=ACB.

And thus the several products are all mutually equal.

It is also manifest, that the same mode of reasoning might be extended to the products of any multitude of numbers.

PROP. III. THEOR.

Homogeneous quantities are proportional to their like multiples or submultiples.

Let A, B be two quantities of the same kind, and pA, pB their like multiples; $A : B :: pA : pB$.

For, since A and B are capable of being measured to any required degree of precision, suppose $A=ma$ and $B=na$; then $pA=pma$, and $pB=pna$. But (V. 2.) $pma=m.pa$, and $pna=n.pa$. Wherefore a and pa are like submultiples of A and pA, which contain them respectively m times; and these like submultiples are both contained equally, or n times, in B and pB. Consequently (V. def.

10.) the quantities A, B, and pA, pB are proportional; and A, pA are the antecedents, and B, pB the consequents of the analogy.

Again, because the ratio of pA to pB is thus the same as that of A to B, which, in reference to pA and pB, are only like submultiples, it follows that homogeneous quantities are also proportional to their like submultiples.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

In proportional quantities, according as the first term is greater, equal, or less than the second, the third term is greater, equal, or less than the fourth.

Let $A : B :: C : D$; then if $A > B$, $C > D$; if $A = B$, $C = D$; and if $A < B$, $C < D$.

For, if A be greater than B, $A : B$ is a ratio of majority; whence $C : D$, being the same with it, is likewise a ratio of majority, and consequently C is greater than D.

If A be equal to B, $A : B$ must be a ratio of equality, and hence $C : D$ is also a ratio of equality, or C is equal to D.

But, if A be less than B, $A : B$ is a ratio of minority, and so is, therefore, $C : D$, or C is less than D.

PROP. V. THEOR.

Of four proportionals, if the first be a multiple or

For, by conversion, $A : A+B :: C : C+D$, and alternately $A : C :: A+B : C+D$.

Again, by conversion $A : A-B :: C : C-D$, and alternately $A : C :: A-B : C-D$. Whence, by identity of ratios, $A+B : C+D :: A-B : C-D$, and alternately $A+B : A-B :: C+D : C-D$

The same reasoning will hold if A be less than B, the order of these terms being only changed.

PROP. XIII. THEOR.

A proportion will subsist, if the homologous terms be multiplied by the same numbers.

Let $A : B :: C : D$; then $pA : qB :: pC : qD$.

For, since $A : B :: C : D$, alternately $A : C :: B : D$; but the ratio of A to C is the same as $pA : pC$ (V. 3.), and the ratio of B to D is the same as $qB : qD$. Wherefore $pA : pC :: qB : qD$, and, by alternation, $pA : qB :: pC : qD$.

Cor. The Proposition may be extended likewise to the division of homologous terms, by employing submultiples.

PROP. XIV. THEOR.

The greatest and least terms of a proportion are together greater than the intermediate ones.

Let $A : B :: C : D$; and A being supposed to be the greatest term, the other extreme D is the least (V. 5. cor.):

the sum of A and D is greater than the sum of B and C.

Because A : B : : C : D, by conversion A : A—B : : C : C—D, and alternately A : C : : A—B : C—D; but A, being the greatest term, is therefore greater than C, and consequently (V. 4.) A—B is greater than C—D; to each add B+D, and A+D > B+C.

The same mode of reasoning is applicable, should any other term of the analogy be supposed to be the greatest.

Cor. Hence the mean term of three proportionals, is less than half the sum of both extremes.

PROP. XV. THEOR.

If two analogies have the same antecedents, another analogy may be formed, having the consequents of the one as antecedents, and those of the other as consequents.

Let A : B : : C : D and A : E : : C : F; then B : E : : D : F.

For, alternating the first analogy, A : C : : B : D, and alternating the second, A : C : : E : F; whence, by identity of ratios, B : D : : E : F,—which inference is named a *direct equality.*

PROP. XVI. THEOR.

If the consequents of one analogy be antecedents in another, a third analogy will obtain, having the

same antecedents as the former and the same consequents as the latter.

Let A:B::C:D, and B:E::D:F; then A:E::C:F.

For, alternating both analogies, A:C::B:D, and B:D::E:F; whence, by identity of ratios, A:C::E:F, —which conclusion is also named a *direct equality*.

PROP. XVII. THEOR.

If two analogies have the same means, the extremes of the one, with those of the other as mean terms, will form a third analogy.

Let A:B::C:D, and E:B::C:F; then A:E::F:D.

For, since A:B::C:D, AD=BC (V.6.); and because E:B::C:F, EF=BC. Whence AD=EF, and A:E::F:D.

Cor. Hence the extreme and mean terms being interchangeable, it likewise follows, that, if A:B::C:D and A:E::F:D, then B:E::F:D.

PROP. XVIII. THEOR.

If the extremes of one analogy are the mean terms in another, a third analogy will subsist, ha-

ving the means of the former as its extremes and the extremes of the latter as its means.

Let $A:B::C:D$, and $E:A::D:F$; then $B:E::F:C$.

For, from the first analogy $AD=BC$, and, from the second, $EF=AD$; whence $BC=EF$, and consequently $B:E::F:C$.

Cor. Hence also, if $A:B::C:D$ and $B:E::F:C$; then $E:A::D:F$. The principle of this and the preceding Proposition, is named *inverse*, or *perturbate, equality*.

PROP. XIX. THEOR.

If there be any number of proportionals, as one antecedent is to its consequent, so is the sum of all the antecedents to the sum of all the consequents.

Let $A:B::C:D::E:F::G:H$; then $A:B::A+C+E+G:B+D+F+H$.

Because $A:B::C:D$, $AD=BC$; and since $A:B::E:F$, $AF=BE$, and, for the same reason, $AH=BG$. Consequently, the aggregate products, $AB+AD+AF+AH=BA+BC+BE+BG$, and, by resolution, $A(B+D+F+H)=B(A+C+E+G)$, whence $A:B::A+C+E+G:B+D+F+H$.

Cor. 1. It is obvious, that the Proposition will extend likewise to the difference of the homologous terms, and may, therefore, be more generally expressed thus: $A:B::A\pm C\pm E\pm G:B\pm D\pm F\pm H$.

Cor. 2. Hence, if $A:B::C:D$, and $A:E::C:F$; then

$A : C :: B \pm E : D \pm F$. For, by alternation, the two analogies become $A : C :: B : D$, and $A : C :: E : F$; wherefore the proposition applies to them.

Cor. 3. If $A : B :: C : D$, and $E : B :: F : D$; then $A \pm E : B :: C \pm F : D$. For, alternating the analogies, $A : C :: B : D$, and $E : F :: B : D$; whence $B : D :: A \pm E : C \pm F$, and, by alternation and inversion, $A \pm E : B :: C \pm F : D$.

PROP. XX. THEOR.

In continued proportionals, the difference between the first and second is to the second, as the difference between the first and last terms to the sum of all the terms, excepting the first.

Let $A : B :: B : C :: C : D :: D : E$; then if $A > B$, $A - B : B :: A - E : B + C + D + E$.

For, by the last Proposition, $A : B :: A + B + C + D : B + C + D + E$, and consequently, by division, $A - B : B :: (A + B + C + D) - (B + C + D + E) : B + C + D + E$; that is, omitting $B + C + D$ in the third term, $A - B : B :: A - E : B + C + D + E$.

If $A < B$, then $B - A : B :: (B + C + D + E) - (A + B + C + D) : B + C + D + E$, that is, $B - A : B :: E - A : B + C + D + E$.

The same reasoning, it is evident, will hold for any number of terms.

PROP. XXI. THEOR.

The products of the similar terms of any numerical proportions, are themselves proportional.

Let $A:B::C:D$
$E:F::G:H$
$I:K::L:M$;
then $AEI:BFK::CGL:DHM$.

For (V. 6.), from the first analogy $AD=BC$, from the second analogy $EH=FG$, and from the third analogy $IM=KL$; whence the compound product $AD.EH.IM=BC.FG.KL$. But $AD.EH.IM=AEI.DHM$ (V. 2.), and $BC.FG.KL=BFK.CGL$; wherefore $AEI.DHM=BFK.CGL$, and consequently (V. 6.) $AEI:BFK::CGL:DHM$.

The same reasoning, it is obvious, applies to any number of proportionals.

Cor. 1. Hence the powers of the successive terms of numerical proportions, are likewise proportional. For, if $A:B::C:D$, and, repeating the analogy, $A:B::C:D$; then, by multiplication, $AA:BB::CC:DD$, or $A^2:B^2::C^2:D^2$.

Again, let $A:B::C:D$, and, repeating the analogy,
$A:B::C:D$,
and $A:B::C:D$; whence, by multiplying the corresponding terms,

$$A^3:B^3::C^3:D^3.$$

And so the induction may be pursued generally.

Cor. 2. Hence also the roots of the terms of a numerical proportion, are proportional. If $A:B::C:D$, then $\surd A:\surd B::\surd C:\surd D$. For let $\surd A:\surd B::\surd C:\surd E$, and, by the last corollary, $A:B::C:E$; but $A:B::$

$C : D$, whence $C : E :: C : D$, and consequently $E = D$, or $\sqrt{A} : \sqrt{B} :: \sqrt{C} : \sqrt{D}$. In the same manner, it may be shown in general that, if $A : B :: C : D$, $\sqrt[n]{A} : \sqrt[n]{B} :: \sqrt[n]{C} : \sqrt[n]{D}$.

PROP. XXII. THEOR.

The ratio which is conceived to be compounded of other ratios, is the same as that of the products of their corresponding numerical expressions.

Suppose the ratio of $A : D$ is compounded of $A : B$, of $B : C$, and of $C : D$, and let $A : B :: K : L$, $B : C :: M : N$, and $C : D :: O : P$; then will $A : D :: KMO : LNP$.

For, since $A : B :: K : L$,
$B : C :: M : N$,
and $C : D :: O : P$,
the products of the similar terms are proportional (V. 21.), or $ABC : BCD :: KMO : LNP$. But $A : D :: ABC : BCD$ (V. 3.), and consequently $A : D :: KMO : LNP$.

The same mode of reasoning is applicable to any number of component ratios.

PROP. XXIII. THEOR.

A duplicate ratio is the same as the ratio of the second powers of the terms of its numerical expression, and a triplicate ratio is the same as the third powers of those terms.

The duplicate ratio of $A:B$ is denoted by $A^2:B^2$, and the triplicate ratio by $A^3:B^3$.

For the duplicate ratio of $A:B$, being the double compound of $A:B$ and of $A:B$, is (V. 22) the same as that of the corresponding products $A.A : B.B$, or $A^2:B^2$.

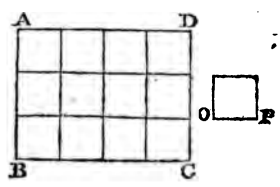
Again, the triplicate ratio of $A:B$, being the triple compound of $A:B$, of $A:B$, of $A:B$, is the same as that of the corresponding products $AAA : BBB$, or $A^3:B^3$.

Cor. Hence the subduplicate ratio of $A:B$, is $\sqrt{A}:\sqrt{B}$, and the subtriplicate ratio of $A:B$, is $\sqrt[3]{A}:\sqrt[3]{B}$.

PROP. XXIV. THEOR.

The product of the numbers expressing the sides of a rectangle, will represent its quantity of surface, as measured by a square described on the linear unit.

Let ABCD be a rectangle and OP the linear measure; and suppose the side AB contains OP, m times, and the side BC contains it, n times. Divide these sides accordingly (I. 40.), and, through the points of section, draw straight lines (I. 26.) parallel to AD and DC: the whole rectangle will thus be divided into cells, each of them equal



to the square of OP. It is evident, that there stand on BC, n columns, and that each of these columns contains, m cells; consequently the entire space includes, $m \times n$ cells, or is equal to the square of OP repeated, mn times.

Cor. 1. If $m=n$, then AB=BC, and the rectangle becomes a square; but mn is in that case equal to nn, or n^2. Whence the surface of a square is equal to the second power of the number denoting its side.

Cor. 2. Rectangles which have the same altitude m are as their bases n and p; for $mn:mp::n:p$ (V. 3.)

Cor. 3. If two rectangles be equal, their respective sides are reciprocally proportional, or form the extremes and means of an analogy. For if $mn=pq$, then $m:n::p:q$ (V. 6.)

PROP. XXV. PROB.

Given two homogeneous quantities, to find, if possible, their greatest common measure.

Let it be required to find the greatest common measure, that two quantities A and B, of the same kind, will admit.

Supposing A to be greater than B, take B out of A, till the remainder C be less than it; again, take C out of B, till there remain only D; and continue this alternate operation, till the last divisor, suppose E, leave no remainder whatever: E is the greatest common measure of the quantities proposed.

For, that which measures B will measure its multiple; and being a common measure, it also measures A, and measures, therefore, the difference between the multiple of B and A (V. 1. cor. 1.), that is, C; the required measure, hence, measures the multiple of C, and consequently the difference of this multiple and B, which it measured,—that is D: And lastly, this measure, as it measures the multiple of D, must consequently measure the difference

of this from C, or it must measure E. Here the decomposition is supposed to terminate. Wherefore, the common measure of A and B, since it measures E, may be E itself; and it is also the greatest possible measure, for nothing greater than E can be contained in this quantity.

By retracing the steps likewise, it might be shown, that E measures, in succession, all the preceding terms D, C, B, and A.

If the process of decomposition should never come to a close, the quantities A and B do not admit a common measure,—or they are *incommensurable*. But, as the residue of the subdivision is necessarily diminished at each step of this operation, it is evident that an element may be always discovered, which will measure A and B nearer than any assignable difference whatever.

PROP. XXVI. PROB.

To express by numbers, either exactly or approximately, the ratio of two given homogeneous quantities.

Let A and B be two quantities of the same kind, whose numerical ratio it is required to discover.

Find, by the last Proposition, the greatest common measure E of the two quantities; and let A contain this measure K times, and B contain it L times: Then will the ratio K : L express the ratio of A : B.

For the numbers K and L severally consist of as many units, as the quantities A and B contain their measure E. It is also manifest, since E is the greatest possible divisor, that K and L are the smallest numbers capable of expressing the ratio of A to B.

The formation of these numbers will evidently stop, when the corresponding subdivision terminates. But even though the successive decomposition should never terminate, as in the case of incommensurable quantities,—yet the expression thus obtained must constantly approach to the ratio of A : B, since they suppose only the omission of the remainder of the last division, and which is perpetually diminishing.

PROP. XXVII. THEOR.

A straight line is incommensurable with its segments formed by medial section.

If the straight line AB be cut in C, such that the rectangle AB, BC is equal to the square of AC; no part of AB, however small, will measure the segments AC, BC.

For (V. 25.) take AC out of AB, and again the remainder BC out of AC. But AD, being made equal to BC, the straight line AC is likewise divided in D, by a medial section (II. 26. cor. 1.); and, for the same reason, taking away the successive remainders CD, or AE, from AD, and DE or AF from AE, the subordinate lines AD and AE are also divided medially in the points E and F. This operation produces, therefore, a series of decreasing lines, all of them divided by medial section: Nor can the process of decomposition ever terminate; for though the remainders BC, CD, DE, and EF thus continually diminish, they still must constitute the segments of a similar division. Consequently there exists no final quantity which would measure both AB and AC.

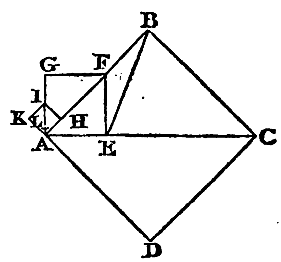
PROP. XXVIII. THEOR.

The side of a square is incommensurable with its diagonal.

Let ABCD be a square and AC its diagonal; AC and AB are incommensurable.

For make CE equal to AB or BC, draw the perpendicular EF (I. 5. cor. 2.), and join BE.

Because CE is equal to BC, the angle CEB is equal to CBE (I. 8.); and since CEF and CBF are right angles, the remaining angle BEF is equal to EBF, and the side EF equal to BF (I. 9.); but EF is also equal to AE, for the angles EAF and EFA of the triangle AEF are evidently each half a right angle. Whence, making FH equal to FB, FE or AE,—the excess AE of the diagonal AC above the side AB,



is contained twice in AB, with a remainder AH; and AH again, being the excess of the diagonal AF of the square GE above the side AE, must, for the same reason, be contained twice in AG, with a new remainder AL; and this remainder will likewise be contained twice in AH, the side of the square KH. This process of subdivision is, therefore, interminable, and the same relations are continually reproduced.

ELEMENTS

OF

GEOMETRY.

BOOK VI.

THE doctrine of Proportion, grounded on the simplest theory of numbers, furnishes a most powerful instrument, for abridging and extending mathematical investigations. It easily unfolds the primary relations of figures, and the sections of lines and circles; but it also discloses with admirable felicity that vast concatenation of general properties, not less important than remote, which, without such aid, might for ever have escaped the penetration of the geometer. He is thus placed on a commanding eminence; from which he views the bearings of the objects below, surveys the contours of the distant amphitheatre, and descries the fading

verge of a boundless horizon. The application of Arithmetic to Geometry forms, therefore, one of those grand epochs which occur, in the lapse of ages, to mark and accelerate the progress of scientific discovery.

DEFINITIONS.

1. Straight lines which proceed from the same point, are termed *diverging* lines.

2. Straight lines are divided *similarly*, when their corresponding segments have all the same ratio.

3. A straight line is said to be cut *harmonically*, if it consist of three segments, such that the whole line is to one extreme, as the other extreme to the middle part.

4. The *area* of a figure is its surface, or the quantity of space which it occupies.

5. *Similar* figures are such as have their angles respectively equal, and the containing sides proportional.

6. If two sides of a rectilineal figure be the extremes of an analogy, of which the means are two sides containing an equal angle in another rectilineal figure; these sides are said to be *reciprocally* proportional.

PROP. I. THEOR.

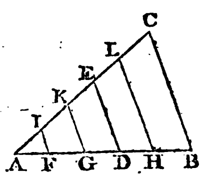
Parallels cut diverging lines proportionally.

The parallels DE and BC cut the diverging lines AB and AC into proportional segments.

Those parallels may lie on the same side of the vertex, or on opposite sides; and they may consist of two, or of more lines.

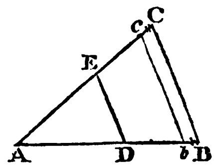
1. Let the two parallels DE and BC intersect the diverging lines AB and AC, on the same side of the vertex A; then are AB and AC cut proportionally, in the points D and E,—or AD : AB : : AE : AC.

For if AD be commensurable with AB, find (V. 25.) their common measure M, and, from the corresponding points of section in AD and AB, draw (I. 26.) the parallels FI, GK, and HL. It is evident, from Book I. Prop. 40, that these parallels will also divide the straight lines AE and AC equally. Wherefore the measure M, or AF the submultiple of AD, is contained in AB, as often as AI, the like submultiple of AE, is contained in AC; consequently (V. def. 10) the ratio of AD to AB is the same with that of AE to AC.



But, should the segments AD and AB be incommensurable, they may still be expressed numerically, and that to any required degree of precision. AD being divided into equal parts (I. 40.), these parts, continued towards B, will, together with a subsidiary portion, compose the whole of

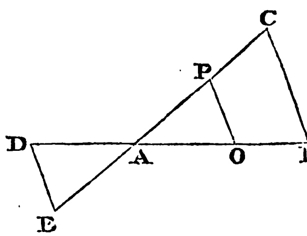
AB. Let this division of AD extend in DB to *b*, and draw the parallel *bc*. If the parts of AD and AB be again subdivided, the corresponding residue will evidently be diminished; and thus, at each successive subdivision, the terminating parallel *bc* must approximate perpetually to BC. Wherefore, by continuing this process of exhaustion, the divided lines A*b* and A*c* will approach the limits AB and AC, nearer than any finite or assignable interval. Consequently, from the preceding demonstration, AD : AB : : AE : AC.



And since AD : AB : : AE : AC, it follows, by conversion (V. 11.), that AD : DB : : AE : EC, and again, by composition (V. 9.), that AB : DB : : AC : EC.

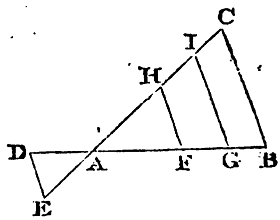
2. Let the two parallels DE and BC cut the diverging lines DB and EC, on opposite sides of A; the segments AB, AD have the same ratio with AC, AE,—or AB : AD : : AC : AE.

For, make AO equal to AD, AP to AE, and join OP. The triangles APO and AED, having the sides AO, AP equal to AD, AE, and the contained vertical angle OAP equal to DAE, are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the angle AOP is equal to ADE; but these being alternate angles, the straight line OP (I. 25.) is parallel to DE, and hence, from what was already demonstrated, AB : AO or AD : : AC : AP or AE.



And since AB : AD : : AC : AE, by conversion DB : DA : : EC : EA, and, by conversion, and inversion DB : AB : : EC : AC.

3. Lastly, let more than two parallels, BC, DE, FH, and GI, intersect the diverging lines AB and AC; the segments DA, AF, FG, and GB, in DB, are proportional respectively to EA, AH, HI, and IC, the corresponding segments in EC.



For, from the second case, DA : AF : : EA : AH ; and, from the first case, AF : FG : : AH : HI. But from the same case, AG : FG : : AI : HI, and AG : GB : : AI : IC; whence (V. 15.) FG : GB : : HI : IC.

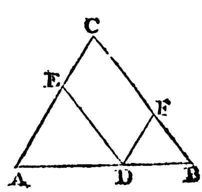
Cor. 1. Hence the converse of the proposition is also true, or that straight lines which cut diverging lines proportionally are parallel; for it would otherwise follow, that a new division of the same line would not alter the relation among the segments, which is evidently absurd.

Cor. 2. Hence, if the segments of one diverging line be equal to those of another, the straight lines which join them are parallel.

PROP. II. THEOR.

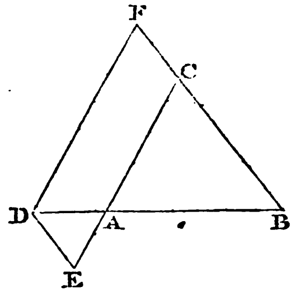
Diverging lines are proportional to the corresponding segments into which they divide parallels.

Let two diverging lines AB and AC cut the parallels BC and DE; then AB : AD : : BC : DE.

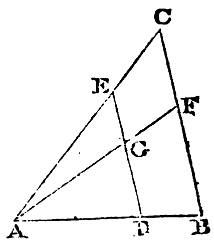


For draw DF parallel to AC. And, by the last Proposition, the parallels AC and DF must cut the straight

lines AB and BC proportionally, or AB : AD : : BC : CF. But CF is equal (I. 29.) to the opposite side DE of the parallelogram DECF; and consequently AB : AD : : BC : DE.



Next, let more than two diverging lines AB, AF, and AC intersect the parallels BC and DE; the segments BF and FC have respectively to DG and GE the same ratio as AB has to AD.



From what has been already demonstrated, it appears, that AB : AD : : BF : DG, and also that AF : AG : : FC : GE. But by the last Proposition, AB : AD : : AF : AG; wherefore AB : AD : : FC : GE. The same mode of reasoning, it is obvious, might be extended to any number of sections. Whence AB : AD : : BF : DG : : FC : GE.

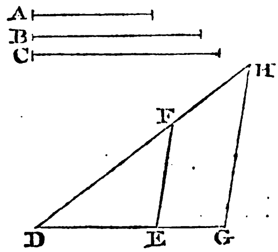
Cor. 1. Hence straight lines which cut diverging lines equally, being parallel (VI. 1. cor. 1.), are themselves proportional to the segments intercepted from the vertex.

Cor. 2. Hence parallels are cut proportionally by diverging lines.

PROP. III. PROB.

To find a fourth proportional to three given straight lines.

Let A, B, and C be three straight lines, to which it is required to find a fourth proportional.



Draw the diverging lines DG and DH, make DE equal to A, DF to B, and DG to C, join EF, and through G draw (I. 26.) GH parallel to EF, and meeting DH in H; DH is a fourth proportional to the straight lines A, B, and C.

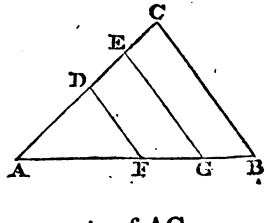
For the diverging lines DG and DH are cut proportionally by the parallels EF and GH (VI. 1.), or DE : DF :: DG : DH, that is, A : B :: C : DH.

Cor. If the mean terms B and C be equal, it is obvious, that DG will become equal to DF, and that DH will be found a third proportional to the two given terms A and B.

PROP. IV. PROB.

To cut a given straight line into segments which shall be proportional to those of a divided straight line.

Let AB be a straight line, which it is required to cut into segments proportional to those of a given divided straight line.



Draw the diverging line AC, and make AD, DE, and EC, equal respectively to the segments of the divided line, join CB, and draw EG and DF parallel to it (I. 26.) and meeting AB in F and G; AB is cut in those points proportionally to the segments of AC.

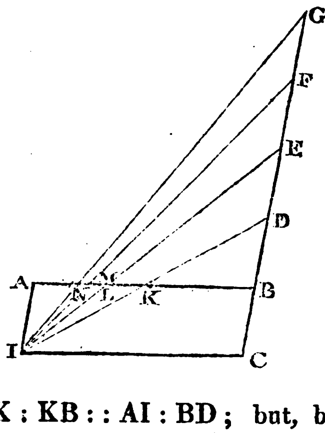
For (VI. 2.) the parallels DF, EG, and CB must cut the diverging lines AB and AC proportionally (VI. 1.), or AF : FG : : AD : DE, and FG : GB : : DE : EC.

PROP. V. PROB.

To cut off the successive parts of a given straight line.

Let AB be a straight line from which it is required to cut off successively the half, the third, the fourth, the fifth, &c.

Through B draw the diverging straight line CBG continued both ways, take in it any point C, and make BD, DE, EF, FG, &c. each equal to BC, complete the parallelogram ABCI, and join ID, IE, IF, IG, &c. cutting AB in the points K, L, M, N, &c.; then is the segment AK the half of AB, AL the third, AM the fourth, and AN the fifth part, of the same given line.



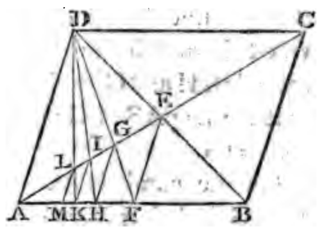
For the segments of the straight line AB must be proportional to the segments of the parallels AI and BG, intercepted by the diverging lines ID, IE, IF, IG, &c. Thus, AK : KB : : AI : BD; but, by construction, BC or AI=BD, whence (V. 4.) AK=KB, and therefore AK is the half of AB. Again, AL : LB : : AI : BE; and since BE=2AI, it follows, that LB=2AL, or AL is the third part of AB. In the same manner, AM : MB : : AI : BF; but BF=3AI, whence MB=3AM,

or AM is the fourth part of AB. And, by a like process, it may be shown that AN is the fifth part of AB.

Otherwise thus.

On AB describe the rhomboid ABCD, and through E, the intersection of its diagonals AC and BD, draw EF parallel to AD (I. 26.), join DF, and through G, where it cuts AC, draw GH likewise parallel to AD, again join DH and draw the parallel IK, and so repeat the operation: Then will AF be the half of AB, AH the third, AK the fourth, and AM the fifth part of it.

Because AD and EF are parallel, DE : EB : : AF : FB (VI. 1.); but DE=EB (I. 31.), wherefore AF=FB, or AF is the half of AB. And AD and EF being intercepted parallels, AD : EF : : AB : BF (VI. 2.); consequently since AB is double of BF, AD is likewise double of EF (V. 5.)—Again, the diverging lines AGE and DGF are proportional to the intercepted parallels AD and EF (VI. 2.), or AD : EF : : AG : GE; and GH being parallel to EF, AG : GE : : AH : HF (VI. 1.), whence AD : EF : : AH : HF; but AD was shown to be double of EF, wherefore AH is double of HF (V. 5.), or AH is two-thirds of AF, or of the half of AB, and is consequently the third part of the whole AB. And since AF : HF : : AD : GH, and AF is triple of HF, it is evident that AD is triple of GH; but AD : GH : : AI : IG : : AK : KH, and AD being triple of GH, AK must also be triple of KH; or AK is three-fourths of AH, which was proved to be the third of AB, whence the segment AK is the fourth part of the whole line AB. By a like process, it is shown that AM is the fifth part of AB.

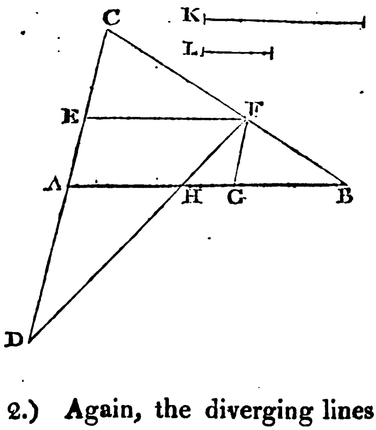


PROP. VI. PROB.

To divide a straight line harmonically, in a given ratio.

Let AB be a straight line, which it is required to cut harmonically, in the ratio of K to L.

Through A draw the diverging line AC, and produce it both ways till AC and AD be each equal to K, make AE equal to L, join CB, draw EF parallel to AB, and FG parallel to CA, and join DF; the straight line AB is divided harmonically in the points H and G, such that K : L : : AB : BG : : AH : HG.



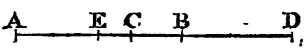
For the parallels AC and GF, being intercepted by the diverging lines AB and CB, AC : GF : : AB : BG (VI. 2.) Again, the diverging lines AG and DF are cut by the parallels AD and FG, whence (VI. 1.) AD : GF : : AH : HG. Wherefore, AB : BG : : AH : HG; and each of these ratios is the same as that of AC or AD to GF, or that of K to L.

Cor. Hence AG is divided, internally in H and externally in B, in the same ratio. In like manner, BH is divided proportionally, by an external and internal section in A and G; for AB : BG : : AH : HG, and alternately AB : AH : : BG : HG.

PROP. VII. THEOR.

If a straight line be divided internally and externally in the same ratio, half the line is a mean proportional between the distances of the middle from the two points of unequal section.

Let the straight line AB be divided in the same ratio, internally and externally in C and D, and also be bisected in E; the half EB is a mean proportional between EC and ED, or EC : EB : : EB : ED.



For since AC : CB : : AD : DB, by mixing and inversion AC—CB : AC+CB : : AD—DB : AD+DB, that is, 2EC : AB : : AB : 2ED, and halving all the terms of the analogy (V. 3,) EC : EB : : EB : ED.

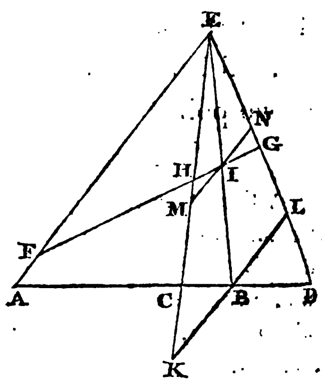
PROP. VIII. THEOR.

If diverging lines divide a straight line harmonically, they will cut every intercepted straight line also in harmonic proportion.

Let the diverging lines EA, EC, EB, and ED terminate in the harmonic section of the straight line AD; any intercepted straight line FG will be likewise cut by them harmonically, or FG : GI : : FH : HI.

For, through the points B and I, draw (I. 26.) KL and MN parallel to AE.

Because the parallels AE and BL are intercepted by the diverging lines DA and DE, AD : DB : : AE : BL (VI. 2.); and for the same reason, the parallels AE and BK being intercepted by the diverging lines AB and EK, AC : CB : : AE : BK. And since AD is divided harmonically, AD : DB : : AC : CB; wherefore AE : BL : : AE : BK, and consequently BL=BK. But, KL being parallel to MN, BL : BK : : IN : IM (I. 2. cor. 2.); consequently, BL being equal to BK, IN must also be equal to IM (V. 4.): whence FE : IN : : FE : IM. Again, FE : IN : : FG : GI, for the parallels FE and IN are cut by the diverging lines GF and GE; and FE : IM : : FH : HI, since the parallels FE and IM are cut by the diverging lines FI and EM. Wherefore, by identity of ratios, FG : GI : : FH : HI; or the intercepted straight line FG, is cut harmonically in the points H and I.



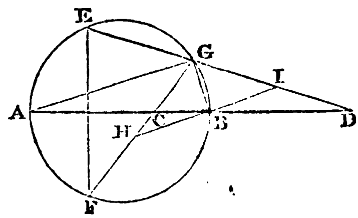
PROP. IX. THEOR.

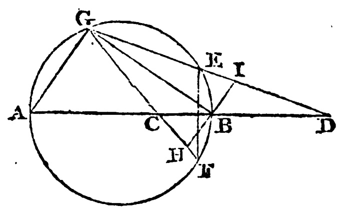
If from any point in the circumference of a circle, straight lines be drawn to the extremities of a chord and meeting the perpendicular diameter, they will divide that diameter, internally and externally, in the same ratio.

Let the chord EF be perpendicular to the diameter AB of a circle, and from its extremities F and E straight lines FG and EG be inflected to a point G in the circumference, and cutting the diameter internally and externally in C and D; then will AC : CB : : AD : DB.

For join AG and BG, and draw HBI parallel to AG.

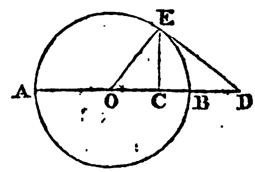
Because AEGB is a semicircle, the angle AGB is a right angle (III. 26.); wherefore AG and HI being parallel, the alternate angle GBI is right (I. 25.); and likewise its adjacent angle GBH. But the diameter AB, being perpendicular to the chord EF, must bisect the arc FAE (III. 5.); and therefore the angle EGA is equal to AGF or its supplement (III. 15. cor.) And since AG is parallel to HI, the angle EGA is equal to the angle GIB or its supplement (I. 25.); and for the same reason, the angle AGF is equal to the alternate angle GHB. Whence the angle GIB is equal to GHB; but the angles GBI and GBH being both right angles, are equal, and the side GB is common to the two triangles BIG and BHG, which are, therefore, equal (I. 23.), and consequently BH is equal to BI, and AG : BH : : AG : BI. Now, because the parallels AG and BH are intercepted by the diverging lines AB and GH, AG : BH : : AC : CB; and since the parallels AG and BI are intercepted by the diverging lines GD and AD, AG : BI : : AD : DB. Wherefore AC : CB : : AD : DB, that is, the straight line AB is cut in the same ratio, inter-





nally and externally, or the whole line AD is divided harmonically in the points C and B.

Cor. 1. As the points E and G come nearer each other, it is obvious that the straight line EGD will approach continually to the position of the tangent, which is its ultimate limit. Hence the tangent and the perpendicular, from the point of contact or mutual coincidence, cut the diameter proportionally, or AC : CB :: AD : DB. It is, therefore, evident (VI. 7.) that, O being the centre, OC : OB :: OB : OD.



Cor. 2. Because OB is a mean proportional between OC and OD, it follows that $OB^2=OD.OC$; and since OED is a right-angled triangle (III. 28.), the squares of OE or OB and of ED (II. 14.) are together equivalent to the square of OD, wherefore $OD^2=OD.OC+ED^2$. Now $OD^2=OD.OC+OD.CD$, and consequently, taking OD.OC away from both, the rectangle OD.CD is equivalent to the square of ED, which again is equivalent to the rectangle AD.BD. But CD : OD :: CD^2 : OD.CD, and, by substitution, CD : OD :: CD^2 : AD.BD; and this analogy must hence apply in the case of any straight line AB, which is bisected in O and cut in the same ratio internally and externally at C and D.

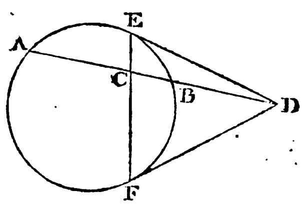
PROP. X. THEOR.

A straight line drawn from the concourse of two tangents to the concave circumference of a circle, is divided harmonically, by the convex circumfe-

rence and the chord which joins the points of contact.

Let ED and FD be two tangents applied to the circle AEBF; the secant DA drawn from their point of concourse will be cut, in harmonic proportion, by the convex circumference EBF and the chord EF which joins the points of contact, or AD : DB : : AC : CB.

For the tangents ED and FD are equal (III. 36. cor. 2.), and EDF, being thus an isosceles triangle, $DE^2=DC^2+EC.CF$ (II. 27.); but (III. 36.) DE^2 is also equal to AD.DB, and the chords AB and EF, by their mutual intersection, make the rectangle EC.CF equal to AC.CB. Whence $AD.DB = DC^2 + AC.CB$; but $DC^2=DC.CB+DC.DB$ (II. 20.), and therefore collectively $AD.DB = DC.CB + AC.CB + DC.DB$, that is, $AD.DB=CB(DC+AC$, or $AD)+DC.DB$. And since $AD.DB=AC.DB+DC.DB$, it follows that $AC.DB+DC.DB=CB.AD+DC.DB$; and taking away the common rectangle DC.DB, there remains the rectangle $AC.DB=CB.AD$. Wherefore (V. 6.) the sides of these equal rectangles are the mean and extreme terms of a proportion, or AD : DB : : AC : CB.

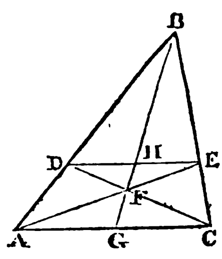


PROP. XII. THEOR.

If two straight lines be inflected from the extremities of the base of a triangle to cut the opposite sides proportionally, another straight line, drawn from the vertex through their point of concourse, will bisect the base.

In the triangle ABC, let AE and CD, drawn from the extremities of the base to cut the opposite sides proportionally, intersect each other in F, join BF, which produce if necessary to meet the base in the point G; AG will be equal to GC.

For join DE. And because the sides AB and BC are cut proportionally, DE is parallel to AC (VI. 1. cor.), whence BD : BA : : BH : BG (VI. 1.); but BD : BA : : DE : AC (VI. 2.), and therefore BH : BG : : DE : AC. Again, the parallels DE and AC being cut by the diverging lines AE and CD, DE : AC : : DF : FC (VI. 2.), and DF : FC : : FH : FG (VI. 1.); wherefore BH : BG : : FH : FG, or BF is cut internally and externally in the same ratio. But, DH being parallel to AG, BH : BG : : DH : AG; and since DH is also parallel to GC, HF : FG : : DH : GC; whence DH : AG : : DH : GC, and consequently AG is equal to GC.



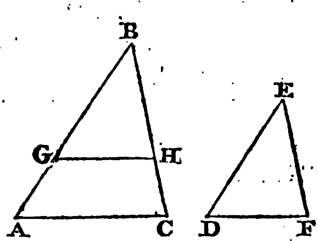
Cor. If the inflected lines AE and CD bisect the opposite sides of the triangle, BG will be double of BH, and consequently FG the double of FH; FG is therefore equal to two third parts of GH, or is one third part of the whole BG. If 3AD=AB, then 3GH=BG, and 3FH=FG; whence 4FG=3GH, or FG is the fourth part of BG. Again, if 4AD=AB, then 4GH=BG, and 4FH=FG; consequently 5GH=4GH, or GH is the fifth part of BG. In general, it will appear that the portion FG is what would result from dividing BG into a greater number of parts, by one, than AB.

PROP. XIII. THEOR.

Triangles are similar, which have their corresponding angles equal.

Let the triangles ABC and DEF, have the angle CAB equal to FDE, CBA to FED, and consequently (I. 34.) the remaining angle BCA equal to EFD; these triangles are similar, or the sides in both which contain equal angles are proportional.

For make BG equal to ED, and draw GH parallel to AC.



Because GH is parallel to AC, the exterior angle BGH is equal (I. 25.) to BAC, that is, to EDF; and the angle at B is by hypothesis equal to that at E, and the interjacent side BG was made equal to ED; wherefore (I. 23.) the triangle GBH is equal to DEF. But the diverging lines BA and

BC being cut proportionally by the parallels AC and GH (VI. 1.), AB is to BC as BG to BH, or as ED to EF. Again, those diverging lines being proportional to the intercepted segments AC and GH of the parallels (VI. 2.) AB is to BG as AC is to GH, and alternately AB is to AC as BG is to GH, or as ED to DF. In the same manner, as BC is to BH so is AC to GH, and alternately, as BC is to AC so is BH or EF to GH or DF. And thus, the sides opposite to equal angles in the triangles ABC and DEF, are the homologous terms of a proportion.

Cor. Isosceles triangles are similar which have their vertical angles equal. For the supplementary angles at the base must be together equal (I. 34.), and consequently they are equal to each other.

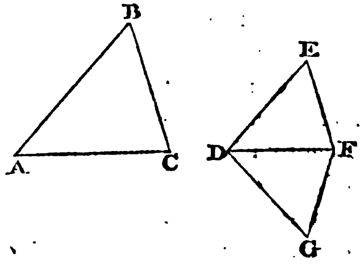
PROP. XIV. THEOR.

Triangles which have the sides about two of their angles proportional, are similar.

In the triangles ABC and DEF, let AB : AC : : DE : DF and BC : AC : : EF : DF; then is the angle BAC equal to EDF, and the angle BCA to EFD.

For (I. 4.) draw DG and FG, making angles FDG and DFG equal to CAB and ACB.

By the last Proposition, the triangle ABC is similar to DGF, and consequently AB : AC : : DG : DF; but, by hypothesis, AB : AC : : DE : DF, and hence, from iden-



tity of ratios, DG : DF :: DE : DF, or DG is equal to DE. In the same manner, BC : AC :: EF : DF, and BC : AC :: GF : DF; whence EF : DF :: GF : DF, and EF is equal to FG. Wherefore the triangles DEF and DGF, having thus the sides DE and EF equal to DG and FG, and the side DF common to both, are (I. 8.) equal; consequently the angle EDF is equal to FDG or BAC, and the angle EFD is equal to DFG or BCA.

Cor. Hence isosceles triangles which have either side proportional to the base, are similar.

PROP. XV. THEOR.

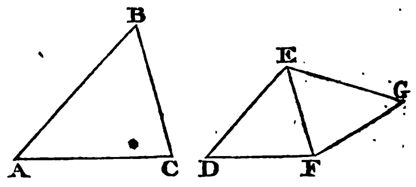
Triangles are similar, if each have an equal angle and its containing sides proportional.

In the triangles BAC and EDF, let the angle ABC be equal to DEF, and let the sides which contain the one be proportional to those which contain the other, or AB : BC :: DE : EF; the triangles BAC and EDF are similar.

For, from the points E and F, draw EG and FG, making the angles FEG and EFG equal to CBA and BCA.

The triangles BAC and EGF, having thus their corresponding angles equal, are similar (VI. 13.), and therefore

AB : BC : : EG : EF. But, by hypothesis, AB : BC : : ED : EF; wherefore EG : EF : : ED : EF, and consequently EG is equal to ED. Hence the triangles GFE and DFE, having the side EG equal



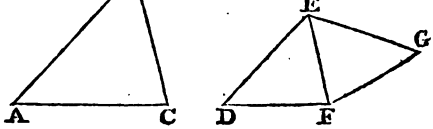
to ED, EF common to both, and the contained angle GEF equal to ABC or DEF, are equal (I. 3.), and therefore the angle EFG or BCA is equal to EFD; consequently the remaining angles BAC and EDF of the triangles ABC and DEF, are equal (I. 34.), and these triangles are (VI. 13.) similar.

PROP. XVI. THEOR.

Triangles are similar, which, being of the same affection, have each an equal angle, and the sides containing another angle proportional.

Let the triangles ABC and DEF, which are of the same affection, have the angle ABC equal to DEF and the sides that contain the angles at C and F proportional, or BC : AC : : EF : FD; the triangles ABC and DEF are similar.

For, from the points E and F draw EG and FG, making the angles FEG and EFG equal to ABC and BCA.



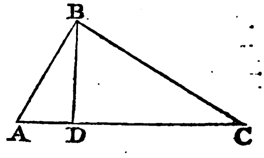
The triangle ABC is evidently similar to GEF, and BC : CA : : EF : FG; but, by hypothesis, BC : CA : : EF : FD, and therefore EF : FG : : EF : FD, and FG is equal to FD. Whence the triangles EGF and EDF, having the side FG equal to FD and the side EF common, and being both of the same affection with CAB, are equal (I. 23.); consequently the angle GEF is equal to DEF or ABC, and therefore (VI. 13.) the triangles ABC and DEF are similar.

PROP. XVII. THEOR.

A perpendicular let fall upon the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle from the opposite vertex, will divide it into two triangles which are similar to the whole and to each other.

Let the triangle ABC be right-angled at B, from which the perpendicular BD is let fall upon the hypotenuse AC; the triangles ABD and DBC, thus formed, are similar to each other and to the whole triangle ACB.

For the triangles ABD and ACB, having the angle BAC common, and the right angle ADB equal to ABC, are similar (VI. 13.) Again, the triangles DBC and ACB are similar, since they have the angle BCD common, and the right angle BDC equal to ABC. The triangles ABD and DBC being, therefore, both similar to the same triangle ABC, are evidently similar to each other (VI. 13.)



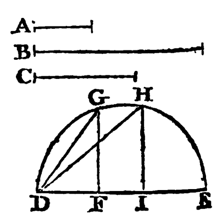
Cor. 1. Hence the side of a right-angled triangle is a

mean proportional between the hypotenuse and the adjacent segment, formed by a perpendicular let fall upon it from the opposite vertex; and the perpendicular itself is a mean proportional between those segments of the hypotenuse. For the triangles ABC and ADB being similar, AC : AB : : AB : AD; and the triangles ABC and BDC being similar, AC : BC : : BC : CD; again, the triangles ADB and BDC are similar, and therefore AD : DB : : DB : DC.

Cor. 2. If the hypotenuse and the sides of a right-angled triangle form a continued proportion, the hypotenuse will be divided into extreme and mean ratio, by the perpendicular let fall upon it from the opposite vertex. For, by the last Corollary, AC : AB : : AB : AD, and therefore $AB^2 = AC.AD$ (V. 6.); in like manner, AC : BC : : BC : CD. But, by hypothesis, AC : BC : : BC : AB; whence BC : CD : : BC : AB, and consequently $AB = DC$, and $AB^2 = AC.AD = CD^2$. Wherefore (V. 6.) AC : CD : : CD : AD.

PROP. XVIII. PROB.

To find the mean proportional between two given straight lines.



Let it be required to find the mean proportional between the straight lines A and B.

Find (III. 37.) the side of a square which is equivalent to the rectangle contained by A and B; C is the mean proportional required.

For since $C^2 = AB$, it follows (V. 6.) that A : B : : B : C.

Or thus.

Make DF=A and DE=B, on DE describe the semicircle DGE, draw FG perpendicular to the diameter DE, and join DG; the chord DG is the mean proportional required.

For join GE. The triangle DGE, being contained in a semicircle, is right angled, and therefore (VI. 17.) DG is a mean proportional between DF and DE, that is, between the given straight lines A and B.

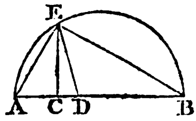
Cor. If another perpendicular IH be drawn, the chords DG, DH will be in the subduplicate ratio of their adjacent segments DF, DI. For $DG^2 = DF.DE$ and $DH^2 = DI.DE$; whence $DG^2 : DH^2 :: DF : DI$, and consequently $DG : DH :: \sqrt{DF} : \sqrt{DI}$.

PROP. XIX. PROB.

To divide a straight line, such that its segments shall have the subduplicate ratio of those formed by another section of the same kind.

Let it be required to divide the straight line AB in D, such that the segments AD, DB shall be in the subduplicate ratio of other like segments AC, CB.

First, let both sections be internal. On AB describe the semicircle AEB, erect the perpendicular CE, join AE, EB, and draw (I. 5.) ED bisecting the angle AEB; then $AD : DB :: \sqrt{AC} : \sqrt{CB}$.



For, by the corollary to the last Proposition, $AE : EB :: \sqrt{AC} : \sqrt{CB}$; but since the vertical angle AEB is bisected, AE : EB ::

AD : DB (VI. 11.), and consequently AD : DB : : $\sqrt{AC} : \sqrt{CB}$.

Next, let both sections of AB be external.

Find, by the last Proposition, a mean proportional to CA and CB, and let this be CD, a production of BC; then, as before, AD : DB : : $\sqrt{AC} : \sqrt{CB}$.

For AC : CD : : CD : CB, whence, by conversion and alternation, AC : CD : : AC+CD or AD : CD+CB or DB. But since AC : CD : : CD : CB, it follows (VI. 23. cor.) that AC : CD : : $\sqrt{AC} : \sqrt{CB}$, and consequently AD : DB : : $\sqrt{AC} : \sqrt{CB}$.

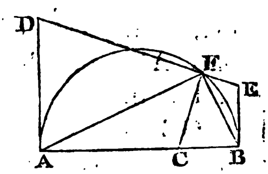
Cor. Hence, conversely, if the internal section D be given, the corresponding point C may be found. For, having completed the opposite semicircumference, draw from its point of bisection a straight line through D to E, and let fall the perpendicular EC; then, since the angle AEB is thus bisected, $AD^2 : DB^2$: : AC : CB.

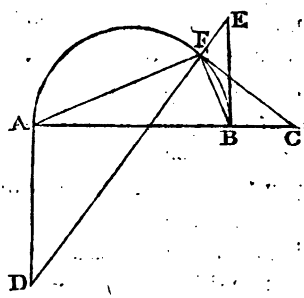
PROP. XX. PROB.

To divide a straight line, whether internally or externally, so that the rectangle under the segments shall be equivalent to a given rectangle.

Let AB be a straight line, which it is required to cut, so that the rectangle under its segments shall be equivalent to a given rectangle.

For, on AB describe the semicircle AFB, apply the tangents AD, BE equal to the sides of the given rectangle, join DE, and from the point F, where this meets the circumference, draw the perpendicular FC, which will divide AB into the given segments.

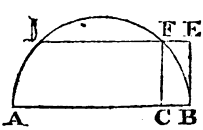




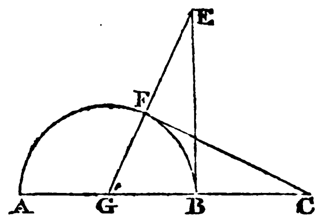
For join AF and BF. And because AD is a tangent and AF a straight line inflected to the circumference, the exterior angle DAF is equal to CBF which stands in the alternate segment (III. 29.); and for the same reason, the exterior angle EBF is equal to CAF. But the opposite angles DAC and DFC of the quadrilateral figure ADFC are, in the first case, two right angles, and, therefore, (III. 21.) the angle ADF is equal to the supplement of ACF or its adjacent angle BCF; and, in the second case, the angles DAC and DFC being both right angles, the figure DAFC is contained in a semicircle, consequently (III. 20.) the angle ADF is equal to BCF. In the same manner, it is proved, that the angle BEF is equal to ACF; wherefore the triangles DAF and AFC are similar to BCF and BFE; and hence AD : AF : : CB : BF, and AF : AC : : BF : BE; consequently (V. 16.) AD : AC : : CB : BE, and (V. 6.) AD.BE=AC.CB.

Cor. If the sides of the given rectangle be equal, the construction of the problem will become materially simplified.

First, in the case of internal section: The tangents AD, BE being equal, it is evident that DE must be parallel to AB and the perpendicular FC parallel to EB. Whence, employing this construction, the rectangle under the segments AC and CB is equivalent to the square of BE; which also follows from Prop. 36, Book III.



Next, in the case of external section: The opposite tangents AD, BE being equal, the triangles AGD and BGE are evidently equal, and therefore DE passes through the centre. Hence the triangles BGE and FGC are also equal, and GC equal to GE. This construction being effected,



the rectangle AC, CB will be equal to the square of BE; which is also deduced from Prop. 36, Book III., since CF is now a tangent and $AC.CB = CF^2$ or BE^2.

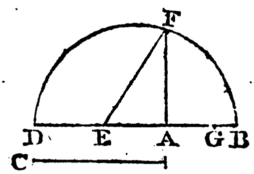
If AB be equal to BE, the construction will exactly correspond with what was before given.

PROP. XXI. PROB.

To cut a given straight line, such that the square of one part shall be equivalent to the rectangle under the remainder and another given straight line.

Let AB be a straight line, from which it is required to cut off a segment whose square shall be equivalent to the rectangle under the remainder and the straight line C.

Produce BA till AD be equal to C, on BD describe a semicircle and erect the perpendicular AF, bisect AD in E, join EF and make EG equal to it; the square of the segment AG thus formed is equivalent to the rectangle under the remaining part GB and DA or C.



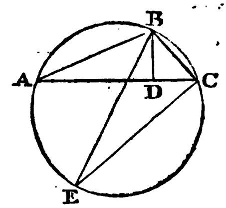
For EFA being a right-angled triangle, $EF^2=EA^2+AF^2$ (II. 14.), and consequently $AF^2=EF^2-EA^2$, or EG^2-EA^2; and since (II. 28.) $EG^2-EA^2=(EG+EA)(EG-EA)$, or DG.AG, therefore $AF^2=DG.AG$. But (III. 36. cor. 1.) $AF^2=DA.AB$; whence $DG.AG=DA.AB$, and $AG : AB :: DA : DG$ (VI. 6.); wherefore (V. 11. and V. 8.) AB—AG, or $GB : AG :: DG—DA$, or $AG : DG$, whence (V. 6.) $AG^2=GB.DA$

Cor. If DA, or C, be equal to AB, then $AG^2=AB.BG$, or $AB : AG :: AG : BG$, and, therefore, the line AB is now divided in extreme and mean ratio, at the point G. The construction also becomes evidently the same with that which was given Book II. Prop. 28, for the medial section of a line, and which is really a simple case of the same problem.

PROP. XXII. THEOR.

The rectangle under any two sides of a triangle, is equivalent to the rectangle under the perpendicular drawn to the base and the diameter of the circumscribing circle.

Let ABC be a triangle, about which is described a circle having the diameter BE; the rectangle under the sides AB and BC is equivalent to the rectangle under BE and the perpendicular BD let fall from the vertex of the triangle upon the base AC.



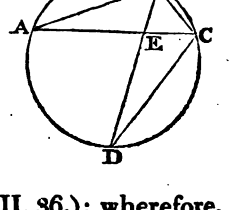
For join CE. And the angle BAD is equal to BEC (III. 20.), since they both stand upon the same arc BC; and the angle ADB, being a right angle, is equal to ECB, which is contained in a semicircle (III. 26.) Wherefore the triangles ABD and EBC, being thus similar (VI. 13), AB : BD : : EB : BC, and consequently (V. 6.) AB.BC= EB.BD.

PROP. XXIII. THEOR.

The rectangle under any two sides of a triangle, is equivalent to the square of a straight line bisecting their contained angle, together with the rectangle under the segments into which it divides the base.

Let the triangle ABC have its vertical angle bisected by BE; then $AB.BC=BE^2+AE.EC$.

For, about the triangle describe a circle (III. 11. cor.), produce BE to the circumference, and join CD.



The angles BAE and BDC, standing upon the same arc BC, are (III. 15. cor.) equal, and the angle ABE is, by hypothesis, equal to DBC; wherefore (VI. 13.) the triangles AEB and DCB are similar, and AB : BE : : DB : BC. Consequently AB.BC= BE.BD, (V. 6.); but $BE.BD= BE^2+BE.ED$, and BE.ED=AE.EC (III. 36.); wherefore, by substitution, $AB.BC=BE^2+AE.EC$.

PROP. XXIV. THEOR.

The rectangles under the opposite sides of a quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle, are together equivalent to the rectangle under the diagonals.

In the circle ABCD, let a quadrilateral figure be inscribed, and join the diagonals AC, BD; the rectangles AB, CD and BC, AD, are together equivalent to the rectangle AC, BD.

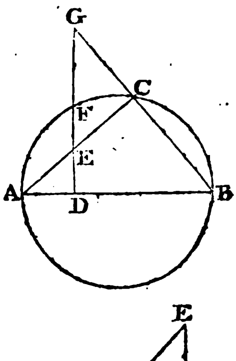
For (I. 4.) draw BE making an angle ABE, equal to CBD.

The triangles AEB and DCB having thus the angle ABE equal to DBC, and the angle BAE, or BAC, equal to BDC (III. 20.), are similar (VI. 13.), and therefore AB : AE : : BD : CD; whence (V. 6.) AB.CD=AE.BD. Again, because the angle ABE is equal to DBC, add EBD to each, and the whole angle ABD is equal to EBC; and the angle ADB is equal to ECB (III. 20.); wherefore the triangles DAB and CEB are similar (VI. 13.), and AD : BD : : EC : BC, and consequently BC.AD=EC.BD. Whence the rectangles AB, CD and BC, AD are together equal to the rectangles AE, BD and EC, BD, that is, to the whole rectangle AC, BD.

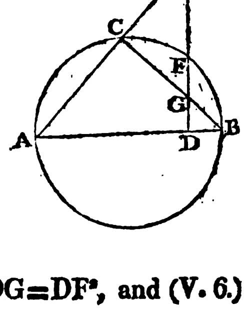
PROP. XXV. THEOR.

A perpendicular to the diameter of a circle and limited by the circumference, is a mean proportional between its segments, formed by straight lines drawn from the extremities of the diameter through any point in the circumference.

Let the straight lines AEC and BCG, drawn from the extremities of the diameter of a circle through a point C in the circumference, cut the perpendicular DG; the part DF within the circle is a mean proportional between the segments DE and DG.



For the angle ACB, being in a semicircle, is a right angle (III. 26.), and the angle ABG is common to the two triangles ABC and GBD, which are, therefore, similar (VI. 13.) Hence the remaining angle BAC is equal to BGD, and consequently the triangles ADE and GDB are similar; wherefore AD : DE : : DG : DB, and AD.DB=DE.DG. But (III. 36. cor.), the rectangle under AD and DB is equivalent to the square of DF; whence DE.DG=DF², and (V. 6.) DE : DF : : DF : DG.

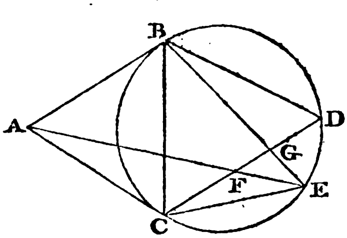


PROP. XXVI. THEOR.

A chord of a circle is divided in continued proportion, by straight lines inflected to any point in the opposite circumference from the extremities of a parallel tangent, which is limited by another tangent applied at the origin of the chord.

Let AB, AC be two tangents applied to a circle, CD a chord drawn parallel to AB, and AE, BE straight lines inflected to a point E in the opposite circumference; then will the chord CD be cut in continued proportion at the points F and G, or CF : CG : : CG : CD.

For join BD, BC, AC, and CE. Because the tangent AB is equal to AC (III. 36. cor. 2.), the angle ABC is equal to ACB (I. 8.); but ABC is equal to the angle BCD (I. 25.), and to the angle BDC (III. 29.); whence (VI. 13.) the triangles BAC and BDC are similar, and AB : BC : : BC : CD, and consequently (V. 6.) $BC^2 = AB.CD$. Again, the triangles CBG and CBE are similar, for they have a common angle CBE, and the angle BCG, or BCD, is equal to BDC, or BEC (III. 20.): Wherefore BG : BC : : BC : BE, and $BC^2 = BG.BE$. Hence $AB.CD = BG.BE$, and AB : BE : : BG : CD; but FG being parallel to AB, AB : BE : : FG : GE (VI. 2.), and consequently FG : GE : : BG : CD; therefore $FG.CD = BG.GE$ (V. 6.); and since $BG.GE = CG.GD$ (III. 36.), it follows that $CG.GD = FG.CD$, and FG : CG : : GD : CD, and hence (V. 20.) CF : CG : : CG : CD.

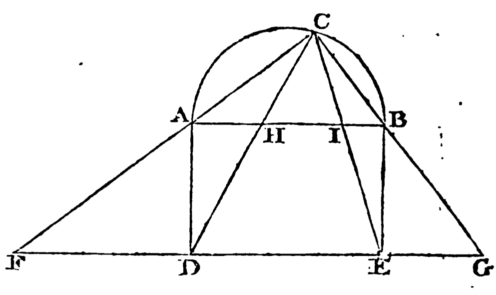


PROP. XXVII. THEOR.

If a semicircle be described on the side of a rectangle, and through its extremities two straight lines be drawn from any point in the circumference to meet the opposite side produced both ways; the altitude of the rectangle will be a mean proportional between the segments thus intercepted.

Let ABED be a rectangle, which has a semicircle ACB described on the side AB, and the straight lines CA and CB drawn from a point C in the circumference to meet the extension of the opposite side DE; the altitude AD of the rectangle will be a mean proportional between the exterior segments FD and EG.

For, the angle ADF, being evidently a right angle, is equal to the angle ACB, which stands in a semicircle (III. 26.), and the angle DFA is equal to the exterior angle BAC



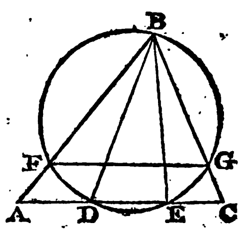
(I. 25.); wherefore (VI. 13.) the triangle FAD is similar to ABC. In the same manner, it is proved that the triangle BGE is similar to ABC; whence the triangles DFA and BGE are similar to each other, and consequently (VI. 13.) FD : AD : : BE or AD : EG.

Cor. 1. If the straight lines CD and CE be drawn, they will (VI. 2.) divide the diameter AB into segments AH, HI, and IB, which are respectively proportional to the segments FD, DE, and EG of the extended side DE. Consequently when ABED is a square, and therefore DE a mean proportional between FD and EG, it must follow that HI is likewise a mean proportional between AH and IB.

Cor. 2. If the rectangle ABED have its altitude AD equal to the side of a square inscribed within the circle, the square of the diameter AB is equivalent to the squares of the two segments AI and BH. For FD : AD : : AD : EG, whence (V. 6.) $FD.EG = AD^2$, or $2FD.EG = 2AD^2$; but (IV. 18. cor.) $2AD^2 = AB^2$ or DE^2, and consequently $2FD.EG = DE^2$; wherefore (VI. 2.) $2AH.IB = HI^2$, and hence (II. 28. cor.) the segments AI, BH are the sides of a right-angled triangle, of which AB is the hypotenuse, or $AB^2 = AI^2 + BH^2$.

PROP. XXVIII. THEOR.

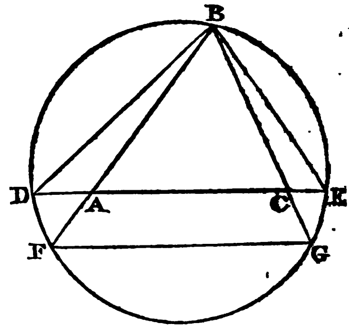
If, from the vertex of a triangle, two straight lines be drawn, making equal angles with the sides and cutting the base; the squares of the sides are proportional to the rectangles under the adjacent segments of the base.



In the triangle ABC, let the straight lines BD and BE make the angle ABD equal to CBE; then $AB^2 : BC^2 :: DA \times AE : EC \times CD$.

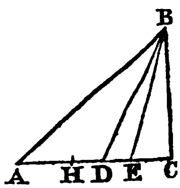
For (III. 11. cor.) through

the points B, D, and E describe a circle, meeting the sides AB and BC of the triangle in F and G, and join FG.



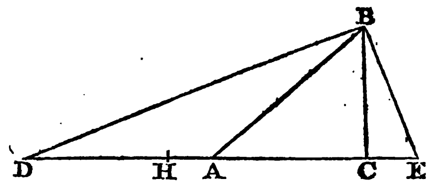
Because the angles DBF and EBG are equal, they stand (III. 15.) on equal arcs DF and EG, and consequently (III. 22. cor.) FG is parallel to DE. Whence (VI. 1.) AB : BC : : AF : CG, and therefore (V. 13.) $AB^2 : BC^2$: : AB.AF : BC.CG; but (III. 36.) AB.AF $=$DA.AE, and BC.CG$=$EC.CD. Wherefore $AB^2 : BC^2$: : DA.AE : EC.CD.

Cor. 1. If the triangle ABC be right-angled at C, and the vertical lines BD and BE cut the base internally; then BC^2+AC.CE : BC^2 : : AE : CD. For make AH equal to EC. Because $AB^2 : BC^2$: : DA.AE : EC.CD and (II. 14.) $AB^2=AC^2+BC^2$, therefore AC^2+BC^2 : BC^2 : : DA.AE : EC.CD, and, by division, AC^2 : BC^2 : : DA.AE$-$EC.CD : EC.CD. But, by successive decomposition, DA.AE$-$EC.CD$=$DA.AC$-$DA.EC$-$EC.CD$=$DA.AC$-$EC.AC$=$AC.HD; whence $AC^2 : BC^2$: : AC.HD : EC.CD, and (V. 13. and cor.) AC.EC : BC^2 : : EC.HD : EC.CD, or (V. 3.) HD : CD; consequently (V. 9.) BC^2+AC.EC : BC^2 : : HC : CD; but, AH being equal to EC, HC is equal to AE; wherefore BC^2+AC.EC : BC^2 : : AE : CD.



Cor. 2. If the vertical lines BD, BE cut the base AC of a right-angled triangle ACB externally; then will BC^2-AC.EC : BC^2 : : AE : CD. For make AH$=$EC. It is demonstrated as before, that AC^2 : BC^2 : : DA.AE$-$EC.CD : EC.CD ; but DA.AE$-$EC.CD$=$DA.AC$+$

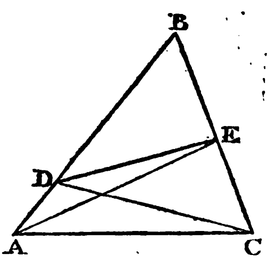
DA.EC—EC.CD= DA.AC—EC.AC= AC.HD ; wherefore $AC^2 : BC^2 :: AC.HD : EC.CD$; and $AC.EC : BC^2 :: EC.HD : EC.CD :: HD : CD$, and consequently $BC^2—AC.EC : BC^2 ::$ HC or AE : CD.



PROP. XXIX. THEOR.

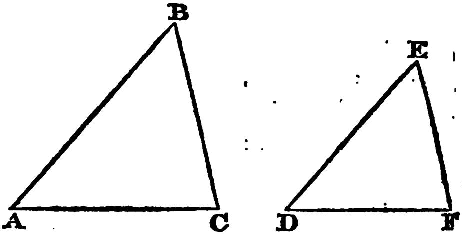
Triangles which have a common angle, are to each other in the compound ratio of the containing sides.

Let ABC and DBE be two triangles, having the same or an equal angle at B; ABC is to DBE in the ratio compounded of that of BA to BD and of BC to BE.

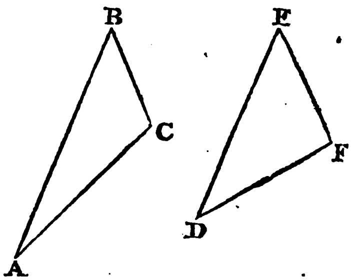


For join AE and CD. The ratio of the triangle ABC to DBE may be conceived as compounded of that of ABC to DBC, and of DBC to DBE. But (V. 24. cor. 2. and V. 3.) the triangle ABC is to DBC, as the base BA to BD; and, for the same reason, the triangle DBC is to DBE, as the base BC to BE; consequently the triangle ABC is to DBE in the ratio compounded of that of BA to BD, and of BC to BE, or (V. 32.) in the ratio of the rectangle under BA and BC to the rectangle under BD and BE.

Cor. 1. Hence similar triangles are in the duplicate ratio of their homologous sides. For, if the angle at B be equal to that at E, the triangle ABC is to DEF in the ratio compounded of that of AB to DE, and of CB to FE; but, these triangles being similar, the ratio of AB to DE is the same as that of CB to FE (VI. 13.), and consequently the triangle ABC is to DEF in the duplicate ratio of AB to DE, or (V. 23.) as the square of AB to the square of DE.



Cor. 2. Hence triangles which have the sides that contain an equal angle reciprocally proportional, are equivalent. For, the angle at B being equal to that at E, the triangle ABC is to DEF, as AB.CB to DE.FE; but AB : DE : : FE : CB, and (V. 6.) AB.CB= DE.FE; consequently (V. 4.) the third and fourth terms of the analogy being equal, the first and second must also be equal.



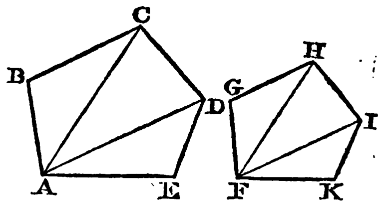
PROP. XXX. THEOR.

Similar rectilineal figures may be divided into corresponding similar triangles.

Let ABCDE and FGHIK be similar rectilineal figures, of which A and F are corresponding points; these figures may be resolved into a like number of triangles respectively similar.

For, from the point A in the one figure draw the straight lines AC, AD, and from F in the other draw FH, FI; the triangles BAC, CAD, and DAE are similar to GFH, HFI, and IFK.

Because the polygon ABCDE is similar to FGHIK, the angle ABC is equal to FGH, and AB : BC : : FG : GH; wherefore (VI. 15.) the triangle BAC is similar to GFH. Hence the angle BCA is equal to GHF; and the whole angle BCD being equal to GHI, the remaining angle ACD must be equal to FHI. But BC : AC : : GH : FH, and BC : CD : : GH : HI; consequently (V. 15.) AC : CD : : FH : HI, and the triangles CAD and HFI (VI. 15.) are similar. Whence the angle CDA being equal to HIF and the angle CDE to HIK, the angle ADE is equal to FIK; and since CD : DA : : HI : IF, and CD : DE : : HI : IK, therefore (V. 15.) DA : DE : : IF : IK, and the triangles DAE and IFK are similar.



The same train of reasoning, it is obvious, would apply to polygons of any number of sides.

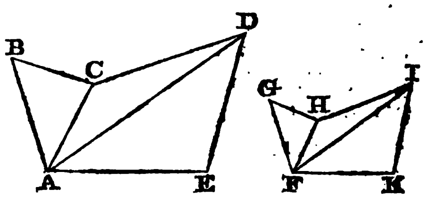
PROP. XXXI. PROB.

On a given straight line, to construct a rectilineal figure similar to a given rectilineal figure.

Let FK be a straight line, on which it is required to construct a rectilineal figure similar to the figure ABCDE.

Join AC and AD, dividing the given rectilineal figure into its component triangles: From the points F and K draw FI and KI, making the angles KFI and FKI equal to EAD and AED; from F and I draw FH and IH making the angles IFH and FIH equal to DAC and ADC; and lastly from F and H draw FG and HG making the angles HFG and FHG equal to CAB and ACB. The figure FGHIK is similar to ABCDE.

For the several triangles KFI, IFH, and HFG, which compose the figure FGHIK, are, by the construction, evidently similar to the triangles EAD, DAC, and CAB, into which the figure ABCDE was resolved. Whence FK : KI : : AE : ED; also KI : IF : : ED : DA, and IF : IH : : DA : DC, and consequently (V. 15.)



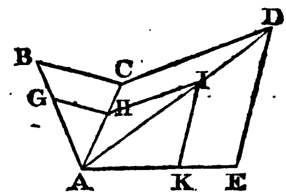
KI : IH : : ED : DC. Again, IH : HF : : DC : CA, and HF : HG : : CA : CB, and hence IH : HG : : DC : CB. But HG : GF : : CB : BA; and the ratio of GF to FK being compounded of that of GF to FH, of FH to FI, and of FI to FK, is the same with the ratio of BA to AE, which is compounded of the like ratios of BA to AC, of AC to AD, and of AD to AE. Wherefore all the sides about the figure FGHIK are proportional to those about ABCDE; but the several angles of the former, having a like composition, are respectively equal to those of the latter: Whence the figure FGHIK is similar to the given figure.

The same reasoning, it is manifest, would extend to polygons of any number of sides.

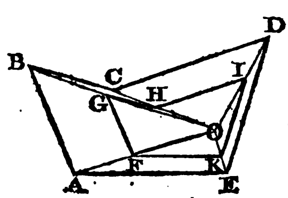
Scholium. The general solution of this problem is deri-

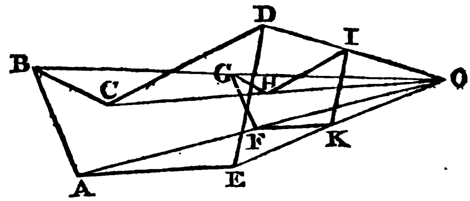
ved from the principle, that similar triangles, by their composition, form similar polygons. The mode of construction, however, admits of some variation. For instance, if the straight line FK be parallel to AE, or in the same extension with that homologous side,—the several triangles FIK, FHI, and FGH may be more easily constituted in succession, by drawing the straight lines FI and KI, FH and IH, and FG and GH parallel to the corresponding sides in the original figure ABCDE; because (I. 25.) a corresponding equality of angles will be thus produced.

But, if FK have no determinate position, the construction may be still farther simplified: For, having made AK equal to that base and joined AD and AC, draw KI, IH, and HG parallel to ED, DC, and CB. The figure AKIHG is evidently similar to AEDCB, since its component triangles have the same vertical angles as those of the original figure, and the angles at the base are equal, on account of the parallelism.



If the given base FK be parallel to the corresponding side AE of the original figure, a more general construction will result. Join AF, EK and produce them to meet in O; join OB, OC, and OD, and draw FG, GH, HI, and therefore IK, parallel to AB, BC, CD, and DE: The figure FGHIK thus formed is similar to ABCDE. For the triangles KOF, FOG, GOH, HOI, and IOK are evidently similar to the triangles EOA, AOB, BOC, COD, and DOE. But these triangles compose severally the two polygons, when the point O lies within the





original figure; and when that point of concurrence lies without the figure ABCDE, the similar triangles IOK and DOE being taken away from the similar compound polygons FGHIOK and ABCDOE, there remains the figure FGHIK similar to the original one.

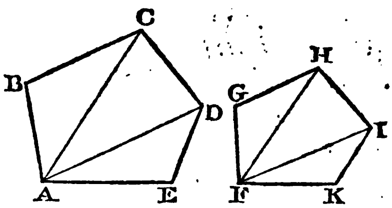
It farther appears, from these investigations, that a rectilineal figure may have its sides reduced or enlarged in a given ratio, by assuming any point O and cutting the diverging lines OE, OA, OB, OC, and OD in that ratio; the corresponding points of section being joined, will exhibit the figure required.

PROP. XXXII. THEOR.

Of similar figures, the perimeters are proportional to the corresponding sides, and the areas are in the duplicate ratio of those homologous terms.

Let ABCDE and FGHIK be similar polygons, which have the corresponding sides AB and FG; the perimeter, or linear boundary, ABCDE is to the perimeter FGHIK, as AB to FG, BC to GH, CD to HI, DE to IK, or EA to KF; but the area of ABCDE or the contained surface is to the area of FGHIK in the duplicate ratio of AB to FG, of BC to GH, of CD to HI, of DE to IK, or of EA to KF.

For, by drawing the diagonals AC, AD in the one, and



FH, IF in the other, these polygons will be resolved into similar triangles. Whence the several analogies AB : AC : : FG : FH, AC : AD : : FH : FI, and AD : AE : : FI : FK; therefore, by alternation, AB : FG : : AC : FH : : AD : FI : : AE : FK, and consequently (V. 19.) as one of the antecedents AB, BC, CD, DE or AE, is to its corresponding consequent, so is the amount of all those antecedents, or the perimeter ABCDE, to the amount of all the consequents, or the perimeter FGHIK.

Again, the triangle CAB is to the triangle HFG (VI. 29. cor. 1.) in the duplicate ratio of AB to FG,—the triangle DAC is to the triangle IFH in the duplicate ratio of AC to FH, or of AB to FG,—and the triangle EAD is to KFI in the duplicate ratio of AD to FI or of AB to FG; wherefore (V. 19.) the aggregate of the triangles CAB, DAC, and EAD, or the area of the polygon ABCDE, is to the aggregate of the triangles HFG, IFH, and KFI, or the area of the polygon FGHIK, in the duplicate ratio of AB to FG, of BC to GH, of CD to HI, or of DE to IK.

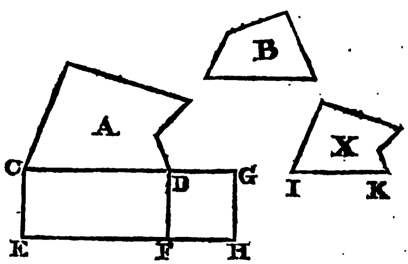
Cor. Hence also the perimeter ABCDE is to the perimeter FGHIK, as any diagonal AD to the corresponding diagonal FI, and the area ABCDE is to the area FGHIK in the duplicate ratio of AD to FI.

PROP. XXXIII. PROB.

To construct a rectilineal figure that shall be similar to one, and equivalent to another, given rectilineal figure.

Let it be required to describe a rectilineal figure similar to A, and equivalent to B.

On CD a side of A, and equivalent to that figure, describe (II. 11.) the rectangle CDFE, and on DF describe the rectangle DGHF equivalent to the figure B, find (VI. 18.) IK a mean proportional between CD and DG, and on IK construct in the same position a figure X similar to the rectilineal figure A; it will be likewise equivalent to B.



For the figures A and X, being similar, must (VI. 32.) be in the duplicate ratio of their homologous sides CD and IK; and since IK is a mean proportional between CD and DG, the duplicate ratio of CD to IK is the same as the ratio of CD to DG (V. 23.); consequently the figure A is to the figure X as CD to DG, or (VI. 32.) as the rectangle CF to the rectangle DH; but the figure A is equivalent to the rectangle CF, and therefore (V. 4.) the figure X is equivalent to the rectangle DH, that is, to the figure B.

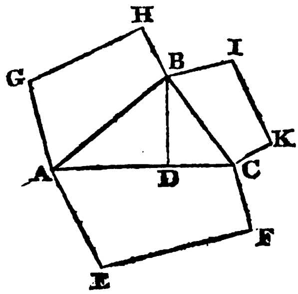
PROP. XXXIV. THEOR.

A rectilineal figure described on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, is equivalent to similar figures described on the two sides.

Let ABC be a right-angled triangle; the figure ACFE described on the hypotenuse, is equivalent to the similar

figures AGHB and BIKC, described on the sides AB and BC.

For draw BD perpendicular to the hypotenuse. And since (IV. 17.) AC : AB :: AB : AD, therefore AC is to AD in the duplicate ratio of AC to AB, that is, (VI. 32.) as the figure on AC to the figure on AB. For the same reason, AC is to CD in the duplicate ratio of AC to BC, or as the figure on AC to the figure on BC. Whence (V. 19. cor. 2.) AC is to the two segments AD and CD taken together, as the figure on AC to both the figures on AB and BC; and the first term of the analogy being thus equal to the second, the third must be equal to the fourth (V. 4.), or the figure described on the hypotenuse is equivalent to the similar figures described on the two sides.



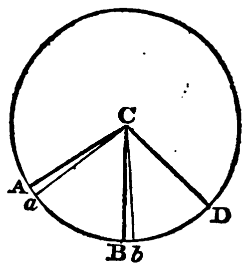
PROP. XXXV. THEOR.

The arcs of a circle are proportional to the angles which they subtend at the centre.

Let the radii CA, CB, and CD intercept arcs AB and BD; the arc AB is to BD, as the angle ACB to BCD.

For (I. 5.) bisect the angle ACB, bisect again each of its halves, and repeat the operation indefinitely. An angle AC*a* will thus be obtained less than any assignable angle. Let this angle AC*a* or BC*b* (I. 4.) be repeatedly applied about the point C from BC towards

DC; it must thus, by its multiplication, fill up the angle BCD nearer than any possible difference. But the elementary angle ACa being equal to BCb, the corresponding arc Aa is (III. 15.) equal to Bb. Consequently this arc Aa and its angle ACa, are like measures of the arc AB and the angle ACB, and they are both contained equally in the arc BD and its corresponding angle BCD. Wherefore AB : BD : : ACB : BCD.



Cor. Hence the arc AB is also to BD, as the sector ACB to the sector BCD; for these sectors may be viewed as alike composed of the elementary sector ACa.

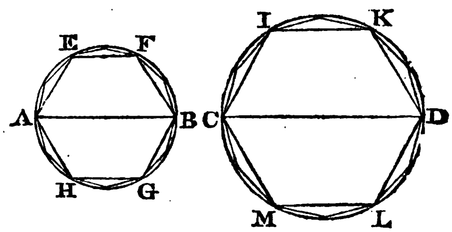
PROP. XXXVI. THEOR.

The circumference of a circle is proportional to the diameter, and its area to the square of that diameter.

Let AB and CD be the diameters of two circles;—the circumference AFG is to the circumference CKL, as AB to CD; and the area contained by AFG is to the area contained by CKL, as the square of AB to the square of CD.

For inscribe the regular hexagons AEFBGH and CIKDLM. Because these polygons are equilateral and equiangular, they are similar; and consequently (VI. 32.) the diagonal AB is to the corresponding diagonal CD, as the perimeter AEFBGH to the perimeter

CIKDLM. But this proportion must subsist, whatever be the number of chords inscribed in either semicircumference. Insert a dodecagon in each circle between the hexagon and the circumference, and its perimeter will evidently (I. 18.) approach nearer to the length of that circumference. Proceeding thus, by repeated duplications,—the perimeters of the series of polygons which emerge in succession, will continually approximate to the curvilineal boundary, which forms their ultimate limit. Wherefore this extreme term, or the circumference AEFBGH, is to the circumference CIKDIM, as the diameter AB to the diameter CD.



Again, the hexagon AEFBGH is (VI. 32.) to the hexagon CIKDLM in the duplicate ratio of the diagonal AB to the corresponding diagonal CD, or (V. 23.) as the square of AB to the square of CD. Wherefore the successive polygons, which arise from a repeated bisection of the intermediate arcs, and which approach continually to the areas of their containing circles, must have still that same ratio. Consequently the limiting space, or the circle AEFBGH, is to the circle CIKDLM, as the square of AB to the square of CD.

Cor. 1. It hence follows, that if semicircles be described on the sides AB, BC of a right-angled triangle, and on the hypotenuse AC another semicircle be described, passing (III. 26.) through the vertex B, the crescents AFBD and BGCE are together equivalent to the triangle ABC. For, by the Proposition, the square of AC is to the square of AB, as the circle on AC to the circle on AB, or (V. 3.) as the semicircle ADBEC to the semicircle AFB;

square of AB to the rectangle under AS and EF; and, for the same reason, the circle APBQ is to the space FOBME, as the square of AB is to the rectangle under BS and EF; consequently (V. 19. cor. 2.) the circle APBQ is to the compound space ALEMBOFN, as the square of AB to the rectangles under AS and EF and BS and EF, or the rectangle under AB and EF; but the square of AB is to the rectangle under AB and EF (V. 24. cor. 2.) as AB to EF, which is the fifth part of AB; wherefore (V. 5.) any of the intermediate spaces, such as ALEMBOFN, is the fifth part of the whole circle.

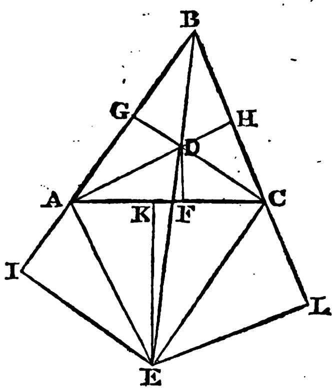
PROP. XXXVII. THEOR.

The area of any triangle is a mean proportional between the rectangle under the semiperimeter and its excess above the base, and the rectangle under the separate excesses of that semiperimeter above the two remaining sides.

The area of the triangle ABC is a mean proportional between the rectangle under half the sum of all the sides and its excess above AC, and the rectangle under the excess of that semiperimeter above AB and its excess above BC.

For produce the sides BA and BC, draw the straight lines BE, AD, and AE bisecting the angles CBA, BAC, and CAI, and let fall the perpendiculars DF, DG, and DH within the triangle, and the perpendiculars EI, EK, and EL without it.

The triangles ADF and ADG, having the angle DAF equal to DAG, the angles F and G right angles, and the common side AD,—are equal; for the same reason, the triangles BDG and BDH are equal. In like manner, it is proved, that the triangles AEI and AEK are equal, and the triangles BEI and BEL. Whence the triangles CDH and CDF, having the side DH equal to DF, the side DC common, and the right angle CHD equal to CFD,—are (I. 24.) equal; and, for the same reason, the triangles CEK and CEL are equal. The perimeter of the triangle ABC is, therefore, equal to twice the segments AF, FC, and BG; consequently BG is the excess of the semiperimeter above the base AC, and AG is the excess of that semiperimeter, or of the segments BH, HC, and AG,—above the side BC. But the sides AB and BC, with the segments AK and CK, or AI and CL, also form the perimeter; whence, BI being equal to BL, the part AI is the excess of the perimeter above the side AB.



Now, because DG and EI, being perpendicular to BI, are parallel, BG : DG :: BI : EI (VI. 2.), and consequently (V. 24. cor. 2.) BI×BG : BI×DG :: DG×BI : DG×EI. But since AD and AE bisect the angle BAC and its adjacent angle CAI, the angles GAD and EAI are together equal to a right angle, and equal, therefore, to IEA and EAI; whence the angle GAD is equal to IEA, and the right-angled triangles DGA and AIE are similar. Wherefore (VI. 13.) DG : AG :: AI : EI, and (V. 6.) DG×EI=AG×AI; consequently BI×BG : DG×BI :: DG×BI : AG×AI. But the triangle ABC is composed of three triangles ADB, BDC, and CDA, which have the

same altitude; and therefore its area is equal to the rectangle under DG and half their bases AB, BC, and AC, or the semiperimeter BI. Whence the area of the triangle ABC is a mean proportional between BI and its excess above AC, and the rectangle under its excess above BC and that above AB.

Cor. If the area of a triangle be expressed by A, its sides by a, b, and c, and the semiperimeter by s; then $s(s-a) : A :: A : (s-b)(s-c)$, and consequently $A^2 = s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)$, and $A = \sqrt{(s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c))}$.

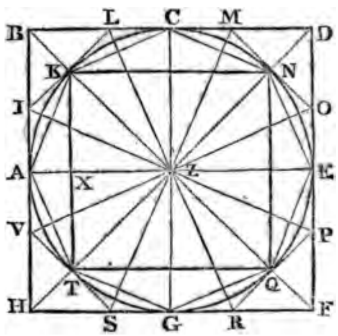
PROP. XXXVIII. PROB.

Given the area of an inscribed, and that of a circumscribed, regular polygon; to find the areas of inscribed and circumscribed regular polygons, having double the number of sides.

Let TKNQ and HBDF be given similar inscribed and circumscribed rectilineal figures; it is required thence to determine the surfaces of the corresponding inscribed and circumscribed polygons AKCNEQGT and VILMOPRS, which have twice the number of sides.

From the centre of the circle, draw radiating lines to all the angular points. It is evident that, the triangles ZXK and ZAB are like portions of the given inscribed and circumscribed figures TKNQ and HBDF; and that, the triangle ZAK, and the quadrilateral figure ZAIK are also like portions of the derivative polygons AKCNEQGT and VILMOPRS. And since XK is parallel to AB, ZX : ZA :: ZK : ZB (VI. 2.); but ZX is to ZA as the

triangle ZXK is to the triangle ZAK (V. 24. cor. 2. and V. 3.) and, for the same reason, ZK is to ZB as the triangle ZAK is to the triangle ZAB; whence ZXK : ZAK : : ZAK : ZAB, and consequently the derivative inscribed polygon AKCNEQGT is a mean proportional between the inscribed and circumscribed figures TKNQ and HBDF.



Again, because ZI bisects the angle AZB, ZA is to ZB, or ZX is to ZK, as AI to IB (VI. 11.) and consequently (V. 24. cor. 2. and V. 3.) the triangle XZK is to the triangle AZK, as the triangle AZI to the triangle IZB. Hence the inscribed figure TKNQ is to its derivative inscribed figure AKCNEQGT as the triangle AZI to the triangle IZB; wherefore (V. 11. and 13.) TKNQ and AKCNEQGT together are to twice TKNQ, as the triangles AZI and IZB, or AZB, to twice the triangle AZI, or the space AIKZ,—that is, as HBDF to VILMOPQRS. And thus, the two inscribed polygons are to twice the simple inscribed polygon, as the surface of the circumscribing polygon to the surface of the derivative circumscribing polygon with double the number of sides.

Cor. Hence the area of a circle is equivalent to the rectangle under its radius and a straight line equal to half its circumference. For the surface of any regular circumscribing polygon, such as VILMOPRS, being composed of a number of triangles AZI, which have all the same altitude ZA, is equivalent (II. 7.) to the rectangle under ZA and half the sum of their bases, or the semiperimeter of the polygon. But the circle itself, as it forms the ultimate limit of the polygon, must have its area, therefore, equivalent to the rectangle under the radius ZA, and the semicircumference ACE.

Scholium. This Proposition furnishes the best elementary method of approximating to the numerical expression for the area of a circle. Suppose the radius of a circle to be denoted by unit: The surface of the circumscribing square will be expressed by 4, and consequently (IV. 16. cor.) that of its inscribed square by 2. Wherefore the surface of the inscribed octagon is $=\sqrt{2\times 4}=2{,}8284271$; and the surface of the circumscribing octagon is found by the analogy, $2+2{,}8284271 : 2\times 2 :: 4 : 3{,}3137085$. Again, $\sqrt{(2{,}8284271 \times 3{,}3137085)} = 3{,}0614674$, which expresses the area of the inscribed polygon of 16 sides; and $2{,}8284271+3{,}0614674 : 2\times 2{,}8284271$, or $5{,}8898945 : 5{,}6568542 :: 3{,}3137085 : 3{,}1825979$, which denotes the area of the circumscribing polygon of 16 sides. Pursuing this mode of calculation, by alternately extracting a square root and finding a fourth proportional, the following Table will be formed; in which the numbers expressing the surfaces of the inscribed and circumscribed polygons continually approach to each other, and consequently to the measure of their intermediate circle.

Number of Sides.	Area of the inscribed Polygon.	Area of the circumscribing Polygon.
4	2,0000000	4,0000000
8	2,8284271	3,3137085
16	3,0614674	3,1825979
32	3,1214451	3,1517249
64	3,1365485	3,1441184
128	3,1403311	3,1422236
256	3,1412772	3,1417504
512	3,1415138	3,1416321
1024	3,1415729	3,1416025
2048	3,1415877	3,1415951
4096	3,1415914	3,1415933
8192	3,1415923	3,1415928
16384	3,1415925	3,1415927
32768	3,1415926	3,1415926

Hence 3,1415926 is the nearest expression, consisting of 7 decimal places, for the area of a circle whose radius is 1. But the semicircumference in this case denoting also the surface, the same number must represent the circumference of a circle whose diameter is 1. Consequently, if D denote the diameter of any circle, the circumference will be expressed approximately, by $3{,}1415926 \times D$; whence the area will be $\frac{1}{4}D^2 \times 3{,}1415926$, or $D^2 . \times 7{,}8539815$.

Since the four last decimals 5926 come so near to 6000, it will, in most cases, be sufficiently accurate to reckon the circumference equal to $D \times 3{,}1416$, and its area equal to $D^2 \times {,}7854$. But other approximations, expressed in lower numbers, may be found, by help of Prop. 26. Book V. For $m=3$, $n=7$, $p=16$, and $q=11$; whence the ratio of the diameter to the circumference of a circle, is denoted successively, by 1 : 3—by 7 : 22—by 113 : 355—and by 1250 : 3927. Hence also the circle is to its circumscribing square nearly—as 11 to 14, or still more nearly—as 355 to 452.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX.

THE constructions used in Elementary Geometry, were effected, by the combination of straight lines and circles. Many problems, however, can be resolved, by the single application of the straight line or the circle; and such solutions are not only interesting, from the ingenuity and resources which they display, but may, in a variety of instances, be employed with manifest advantage. This Appendix is intended to exhibit a choice collection of Geometrical Problems, resolved by either of those methods singly. It is accordingly divided into Two Parts, corresponding to the rectilineal and the circular constructions.

PART I.

Problems resolved by help of the Ruler, or by Straight Lines only.

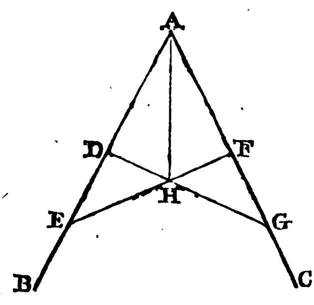
PROP. I. PROB.

To bisect a given angle.

Let BAC be an angle, which it is required to bisect, by drawing only straight lines.

In AB take any two points D and E, from AC cut off AF equal to AD and AG to AE, join the alternate lines EF and DG, intersecting in the point H: AH will bisect the angle BAC.

For the triangles EAF and DAG, having the sides EA and AF equal by construction to GA and AD, and the contained angle DAG common to both, are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the angle AEF is equal to AGD. And since AE is equal to AG, and the part AD to AF, the remainder DE must be equal to FG; wherefore the triangles DEH and HGF having the angle at E equal to that at G, the vertical angles at H equal, and also their opposite sides DE and FG, are equal (I. 23.); and hence the side DH is equal to FH. Again, the sides AD and DH are equal to AF and FH, and AH is common to the two triangles AHD and AHF, which are, therefore, equal (I. 2.), and consequently the angle DAH is equal to FAH.

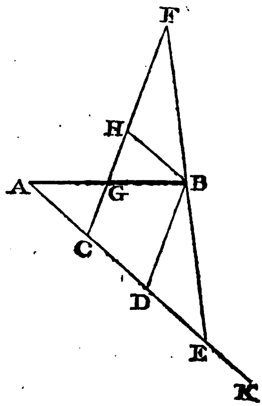


PROP. II. PROB.

To bisect a given finite straight line.

Let it be required to bisect AB, by a rectilineal construction.

Draw AK diverging from AB, and make AC=CD=DE, join EB and continue it beyond B till BF be equal to BE, and lastly join FC; which will bisect AB in the point G.



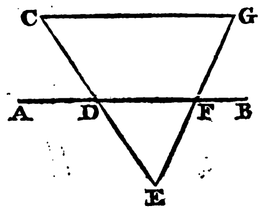
For draw BH parallel to AE. And because BD bisects the sides EC and EF of the triangle CEF, it is parallel to the base CF (II. 4.); wherefore BDCH is a parallelogram, which has its opposite sides BH and CD equal. But AC being parallel to BH, the angles GAC and GCA are equal to GBH and GHB, and the side AC, being made equal to CD, is hence equal to its corresponding interjacent side BH; whence the triangles AGC and BGH are equal (I. 23.), and therefore AG is equal to BG.

PROP. III. PROB.

Through a given point, to draw a line parallel to a given straight line.

Let it be required, by a rectilineal construction, to draw through C a parallel to AB.

In AB take any two points D and F, join CD, which produce till DE be equal to it; again join E with the point F, and continue this till FG be equal to EF: Then CG, being joined, will be parallel to AB.



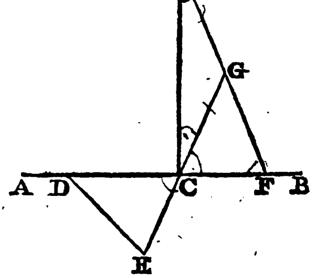
For, since AB or DF evidently bisects the sides EC and EG of the triangle CEG, it must be parallel to the base CG (II. 4.)

PROP. IV. PROB.

From a point in a given straight line, to erect a perpendicular.

Let C be a given point, from which it is required, by help of straight lines merely, to erect a perpendicular to AB.

In AB, having taken any point D, draw DE equal to DC and inclined to AB, join EC and produce it until CG be equal to CD or DE, make CF equal to CE, join FG and produce this till GH be equal to GC: Then CH will be perpendicular to AB.



For the triangles DCE and GCF, having the sides DC, CE equal to GC, CF, and the contained angles vertical at C, are equal (I. 3.); whence FG=CD=CG=GH. G is, therefore, the centre of a semicircle which would pass through the points F, C, H, and consequently the angle

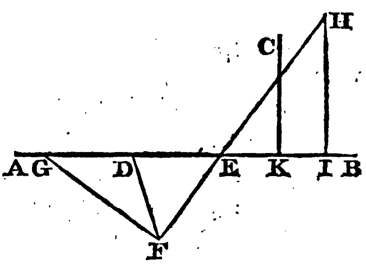
FCH is a right angle (III. 26.), or CH is perpendicular to AB.

PROP. V. PROB.

To let fall a perpendicular upon a given straight line, from a point without it.

Let C be a given point, from which it is required, by a rectilineal construction, to let fall a perpendicular to AB.

In AB take any point D, draw DF obliquely, and make DE=DF=DG, join FE, and produce it until EH be equal to EG, make EI=EF, join HI, and (Appendix, Part I. Prop. 3.) draw CK parallel to it: CK is the perpendicular required



For the point D being obviously the centre of a semicircle passing through G, F, and E, the angle GFE is a right angle; and the triangles EGF, EHI, having the sides GE, EF equal to HE, EI, and their contained angles vertical,—are equal (I. 3.), and consequently the angle HIE is equal to GFE, or is a right angle; but since CK and HI are parallel, the angle CKA is equal to HIE (I. 25.), and therefore is also a right angle, or CK is perpendicular to AB.

PART II.

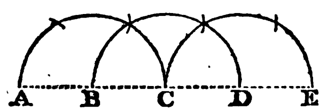
Geometrical Problems resolved by means of Compasses, or by the mere description of Circles.

PROP. I. PROB.

To repeat a given distance in the same direction.

Let A and B be two given points; it is required to find, by means of compasses only, a series of equidistant points in the same extended line.

From B as a centre, with the given distance BA, describe a portion of a circle, in which inflect that distance three times to C; from C, with the same radius, describe another circle, and insert the triple chords to D; repeat that process from D, E, &c.: The equidistant points A, B, C, D, E, &c. will all lie in the same straight line.



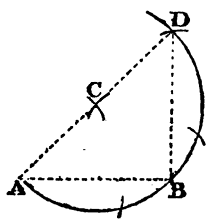
For, by this construction, three equilateral triangles are formed about the point B, and consequently the whole angle ABC, made by the opposite distances BA and BC, is equal to two right angles, or ABC is a straight line. The same reason applies to the successive points D, E, &c.

PROP. II. PROB.

To find the direction of a perpendicular from a given point to the straight line joining another given point.

Given the points A and B; to find a third point, such that the straight line connecting it with B shall be at right angles to BA.

From A and B, with any convenient distance, describe two arcs intersecting in C, from which, with the same radius, describe a portion of a circle passing through the points A and B, and insert that radius three times from A to D: BD is perpendicular to BA.



For, it is evident, from the last Proposition, that the arc ABD is a semicircumference, and consequently that the angle ABD contained in it is a right angle.

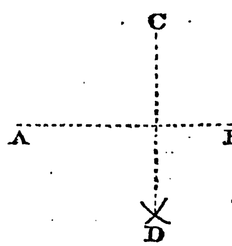
The construction would be somewhat simplified, by taking the distance AB for the radius.

PROP. III. PROB.

To find the direction of a perpendicular let fall from a given point upon the straight line which connects two given points.

Let C be a point, from which a perpendicular is to be let fall upon the straight line joining A and B.

From A as a centre, with the distance AC, describe an arc, and from B as a centre, with the distance BC, describe another arc, intersecting the former in the point D: CD is perpendicular to AB.



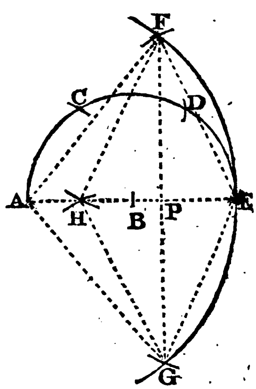
For CAD and CBD are evidently isosceles triangles, and consequently (I. 7.) their vertices must lie in a straight line AB which bisects their base CD at right angles.

PROP. IV. PROB.

To bisect a given distance.

Let A and B be two given points; it is required to find the middle point in the same direction.

From B as a centre, with the radius BA, describe a semicircumference, by inserting that distance successively from A to C, D, and E; from A as a centre, with the distance AE, describe a portion of a circle FEG, in which, and from E, inflect the chords EF and EG equal to EC; and from the points F and G, with the same radius EC describe arcs intersecting in H: This point bisects the distance AB.



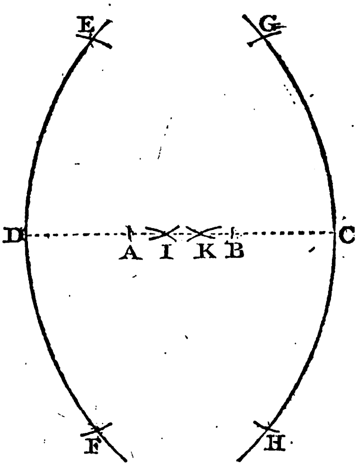
For the points A, B, and E extend in a straight line; but the triangles FAG, FHG, and FEG, being evidently isosceles, their vertices A, H, and E must lie in a straight line; whence the point H lies in the direction AB. Again, because EFHG is a rhombus, its diagonals FG and HE bisect each other (I. 31.), and consequently (I. 7.) AP is at right angles to FG. But AE being equal to AF, EF^2 or $EC^2=2\,AE.EP$ (II. 31. cor.), or $2\,AB.HE$; wherefore, since (IV. 20. cor. 2,) $EC^2=3\,AB^2$, $2\,AB.HE=3\,AB^2$, whence $2\,HE=3\,AB$, that is, $2\,HB+2\,BE=3\,AB$, and consequently $2\,HB=AB$.

PROP. V. PROB.

risect a given distance.

; be required to find two intermediate points that ıte at equal intervals in the line of communication

ıat (App. P. II. 1.) the distance AB on both ı C and D, from these points, with the radius scribe the arcs EDF and GCH, from D and C the chords DE ?, CG and CH, al to DB, and ; same distance, m the points E G and H, de- ırcs intersecting d K: The dis- B is trisected by and K.



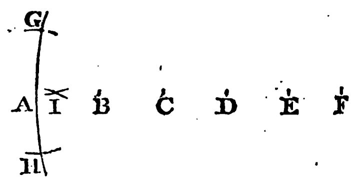
t may be demon- as in the last tion, that the and K lie in the rection AB. In nner, it appears cor.) that $CG^2=$; consequently $(2\,AB)^2=3\,AB.CK$, that is $4\,AB^2=$ K, and therefore $4\,AB=3\,CK=3\,BK+3\,AB$; $AB=3\,BK$. But, for the same reason, $AB=3\,AI$.

PROP. VI. PROB.

To cut off any aliquot part of a given distance.

Suppose it were required to cut off the fifth part of the distance between the points A and B.

Repeat (App. P. II. 1.) the distance AB four times, to F; from F, with the radius FA, describe the arc GAH; inflect the chords AG and AH equal to AB, and, with that radius and from the points G and H, describe arcs intersecting in I: AI is the fifth part of the line of communication AB.



For, as before, the point I is situate in AB. But $AG^2=AF.AI$, and consequently $AB^2=5\,AB.AI$; whence $AB=5\,AI$.

PROP. VII. PROB.

To divide a given distance by medial section.

Let it be required to cut the distance AB, such that $BH^2=BA.AH$.

From B describe a circle with the radius BA, which insert successively from A to D, E, C, and F; from the extremities of the diameter AC, and with the double chord AE, describe two arcs intersecting in G; and from the

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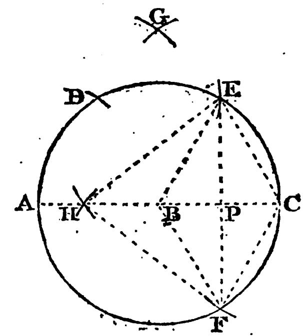
points E and F, with the distance BG, describe other two arcs intersecting in H: This is the point of medial section.



For it is evident, that this point H lies in the straight line AB. And because the triangles AGB, CGB have their sides respectively equal, the angle ABG (I. 2.) is a right angle, and consequently (II. 14.) $AG^2 = AB^2 + BG^2$; but $AG = AE$, and $AE^2 = 3\,AB^2$ (IV. 20. cor.); wherefore $3\,AB^2 = AB^2 + BG^2$, and $BG^2 = 2\,AB^2$. Now since BECF is a rhombus, its diagonals bisect each other at right angles; whence $HE^2 - BE^2 =$ (II. 29. cor.) $HP^2 - BP^2 =$ (II. 23.) $BH.HC$; but $HE^2 - BE^2 = BG^2 - BE^2 = AB^2$, and therefore $AB^2 = BH.HC$. Again, (II. 20.) $AB^2 = AH.BA + BH.AB$, and $BH.HC = BH^2 + BH.AB$; consequently $AH.AB + BH.AB = BH^2 + BH.AB$, and therefore $BH^2 = AH.AB$.

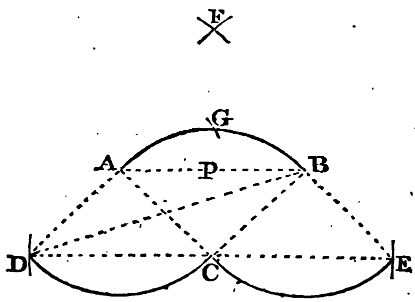
PROP. VIII. PROB.

To bisect a given arc of a circle.

Let it be required to bisect the arc AB of a circle whose centre is C.

From the extremities A and B, with the radius AC, describe opposite arcs, and from the centre C inflect the chord AB to D and E; from these points, with the distance DB describe arcs intersecting in F; and from D or E, with the distance CF, cut the given arc AB in G: AB is bisected in that point.

For the figures ABCD and ABEC being rhomboids, DC and CE are parallel to AB, and hence constitute one straight line; consequently the triangles DFC and EFC having their corresponding sides equal, the angle DCF is a right angle, and (II. 14.) $DF^2 = DC^2 + CF^2$. But in the rhomboid ABCD, $DB^2 + CA^2 = 2\,DC^2 + 2\,CB^2$ (II. 34.), or $DB^2 = 2\,DC^2 + CB^2$; and since DB=DF, $2\,DC^2 + CB^2 = DC^2 + CF^2$, whence $DC^2 + CB^2 = CF^2$, or $DC^2 + CG^2 = DG^2$; and therefore (II. 15.) DCG is a right angle. And because CG is perpendicular to DC, it is likewise (I. 25.) perpendicular to AB, and the triangles CAP and CBP are equal (I. 24.) and the angle ACG equal to BCG; whence (III. 15.) the arc AG=BG.

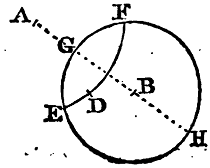


PROP. IX. PROB.

Given two points, to find the intersection of their connecting line with a given circumference.

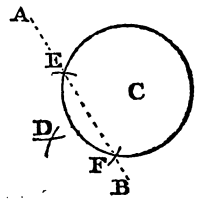
1. Let one of the points be the centre of the circle.

Take any point D within the circle, and from A, with the distance AD describe an arc cutting the circumference in E and F, bisect the arc EGF in G (App. P. II. 8.), and determine the semicircle GEH (App. P. II. 1.): G and H are the points of intersection of the straight line AGH.

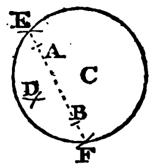


For the triangles AEB and AFB have their sides respectively equal, and consequently the angle ABE is equal to ABF (I. 2.); wherefore (III. 15.) the arc EG is equal to GF, or the straight line AH must bisect the arc EF.

2. Let neither point lie in the centre of the circle.



From A and B, with the distances AC and BC, describe arcs intersecting in D, from which, with the radius CE, cut the circumference in E and F: The straight line AB would extend through these points.

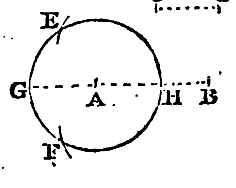


For the triangles CAD and CBD being isosceles, it appears from Book I. Prop. 7, that their vertices A and B lie in a perpendicular passing through the middle of the common base CD, and consequently the points E and F, which are vertices of the isosceles triangles CED and CFD, must likewise occur in the same straight line.

PROP. X. PROB.

To find the sum or difference of two given distances.

Let AB and CD be two distances, of which it is required to determine the sum and the difference.



From A with the distance CD describe a circle, cut the circumference in E and F by any arc described from B, bisect the arc EF (App. P. II. 8.) on both sides at G and H; BG will be the sum of the two distances, and BH their difference.

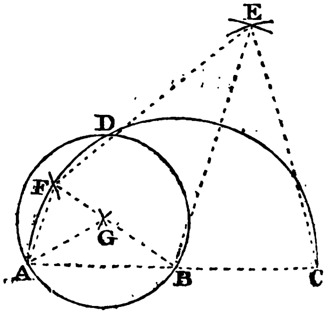
For GB, bisecting the chord EF at right angles, must pass through the centre A, and consequently the radius AG or CD is, on either side, added or taken away from AB.

PROP. XI. PROB.

To find the centre of a circle.

Assume an arc AB greater than a quadrant, and from one extremity B, with the distance BA, describe a semicircle ADC, cutting the given circumference in D; from the points B and C, with the distance CD, describe arcs intersecting in E, and from that point, with the same distance, describe an arc cutting ADC in F; and lastly, from the points A and B, with the distance AF, describe arcs intersecting in G: This point is the centre of the circle ADB.

For the isosceles triangles BEC, BED, being evidently equal, the angle DBC is equal to both the angles at the base; but DBC is (I. 34. El.) equal to the interior angles ABD and BDA of the isosceles triangle ABD, and hence that triangle is similar to BED. Wherefore BE : BD :: BA : AF, or CD : BD :: BA : AG; consequently the isosceles triangles CBD and BGA are similar, and the angle BCD is equal to GBA; BG is, therefore, parallel to CD, and hence (I. 34. El.) the angle BDC, or BCD, is equal to GBD. The triangles BGA and BGD, having thus the side BA equal to BD, BG common, and equal contained angles GBA and GBD, are (I. 3. El.) equal, and therefore the side GA is equal to



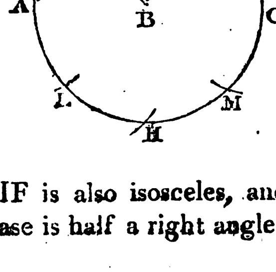
GD. The point G, being thus equidistant from three points, A, D, and B in the circumference, is hence (III. 9. cor.) the centre of the circle.

PROP. XII. PROB.

To divide the circumference of a given circle successively into 4, 8, 12, and 24 equal parts.

1. Insert the radius AB three times from A to D, E, and C; from the extremities of the diameter AC, and with a distance equal to the double chord AE, describe arcs intersecting in the point F; and from A, with the distance BF, cut the circumference on opposite sides at G and H: AG, GC, CH, and HA are quadrants.

For, as before, $AF^2 = AE^2 = 3AB^2$; and the triangle ABF being right-angled, $3AB^2 = AF^2 = AB^2 + BF^2$, and therefore $BF^2 = AG^2 = 2AB^2$; whence (II. 15.) ABG is a right angle, and AG a quadrant.



2. From the point F with the radius AB, cut the circle in I and K, and from A and C inflect the chord AI from L and M; the circumference is divided into eight equal portions by the points A, I, G, K, C, M, H, and L.

For BF^2, being equal to $2AB^2$, is equal to the squares of BI and IF, and consequently BIF is a right angle; but the triangle BIF is also isosceles, and therefore the angle IBF at the base is half a right angle; whence the arc IG is an octant.

3. The arc DG, on being repeated, will form twelve equal sections of the circumference.

For the arc AD is the sixth or two-twelfth parts of the circumference, and AG is the fourth or three-twelfths; consequently the difference DG is one-twelfth.

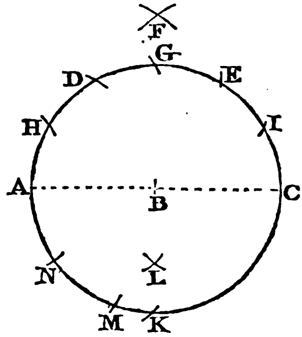
4. The arc ID is the twenty-fourth part of the circumference.

For the octant AI is equal to three twenty-fourths, and the sextant AD is equal to four twenty-fourths; their difference ID is hence one twenty-fourth part of the circumference.

PROP. XIII. PROB.

To divide the circumference of a given circle successively into 5, 10, and 20 equal parts.

Mark out the semicircumference ADEC by the triple insertion of the radius, from A and C with the double chord AE describe arcs intersecting in F, from A with the distance BF cut the circle in G and H, inflect the chords GH and GI equal to the radius AB, and from the points H and I, with distance BF or AG, describe arcs intersecting in L.



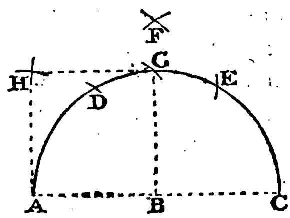
It is evident from App. P. II. 7, that BL is the greater segment of the radius BH divided by a medial section; wherefore (IV. 23. cor. 2. El.) AL is equal to the side of the inscribed pentagon, and BL, to that of the decagon inscribed in the given circle. Hence AL may be inflected five times in the circumference, and

BL ten times; and consequently the arc MH, or the excess of the fourth above the fifth, is equal to the twentieth part of the whole circumference.

PROP. XIV. PROB.

From a given side to trace out a square.

Let the points A and B terminate the side of a square, which it is required to trace.



From B as a centre describe the semicircle ADEC, from A and C, with the distance AE, describe arcs intersecting in F, from A, with the distance BF, cut the circumference in G, and from A and G, with the radius AB, describe arcs intersecting in H: The points H and G are corners of the required square.

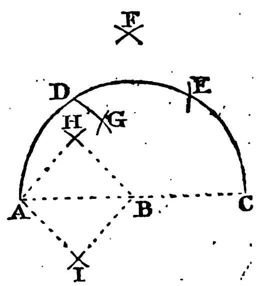
For (App. P. II. 10.) the angle ABG is a right angle, and the distances AB, AH, HB, and GB, are, by construction, all equal.

PROP. XV. PROB.

Given the side of a regular pentagon, to find the traces of the figure.

From B describe through A the circle ADECF, in which the radius is inflected four times, from A and C with the double chord AE describe arcs intersecting in G, from

From B as a centre describe the semicircle ADEC, from A and C with the double chord AE describe arcs intersecting in F, from C with the distance BF describe an arc and cut this from A with the radius AD, and lastly from B and A with the distance BG describe arcs intersecting in H and I: AHBI is the required square.

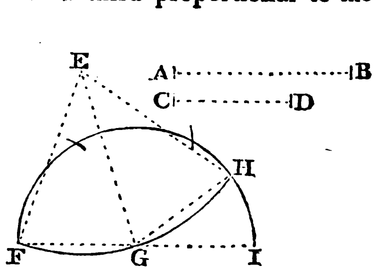


For, in the triangle AGC, the straight line GB bisects the base, and consequently (II. 30.) $AG^2 + CG^2 = 2AB^2 + 2CG^2$; but, (by App. II. Prop. 10,) $GB^2 = BF^2 = 2AB^2$; whence $AG^2 = AB^2 = 2BG^2$, and (II. 15.) AHB is a right angle; and the sides AH, HB, BI, and IA being all equal, the figure is therefore a square.

PROP. XVIII. PROB.

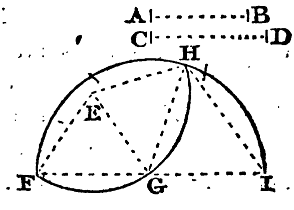
Two distances being given, to find a third proportional.

Let it be required to find a third proportional to the distances AB and CD.



From any point E, and with the distance AB, describe a portion of a circle, in which inflect FG equal to CD, and from G with that distance describe the semicircle FHI; HI is the third proportional required.

For the angles GEH and IGH are each of them double the angle GFH or IFK at the circumference (III. 19. El.); whence the triangles GEH and IGH must also have the angles at the base equal, and are consequently similar: Wherefore (VI. 13. El.) EG : GH :: GH : HI.



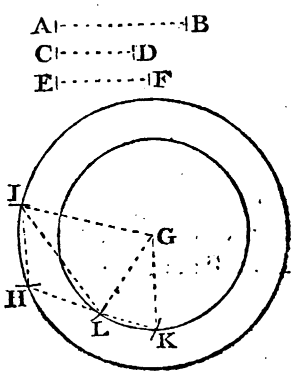
If the first term AB be less than half the second term CD, this construction, without some help, would evidently not succeed. But AB may be previously doubled, or assumed 4, 8, or 16 times greater, so that the circle FGH shall always cut AHI; and in that case, HI, being likewise doubled, or taken 4, 8, or 16 times greater, will give the true result.

PROP. XIX. PROB.

To find a fourth proportional to three given distances.

Let it be required to find a fourth proportional to the distances AB, CD, and EF.

From any point G describe two concentric circles HI and KL with the distances AB and EF, in the circumference of the first inflect HI equal to CD, assume any point K in the second circumference, and cut this in L by an arc described from I with the distance HK; the chord LK is the fourth proportional required.



evident that $AK^2=2\,AB^2$ and $AD^2=3\,AB$; and since $AE=2\,AB$, $AE^2=4\,AB^2$. In the right angled triangles IBK and IBG, $IK^2=IB^2+BK^2=4\,EB^2+BK^2=5AB^2$, $IG^2=IB^2+BG^2=4\,AB^2+2\,AB^2=6\,AB^2$; but (II. 31. El.) $IC^2=IB^2+BC^2+IB.2BO=4\,AB^2+AB^2+2\,AB^2=7\,AB^2$. Again, GH being double of BG, $GH^2=4\times 2\,AB^2=8\,AB^2$, and AI being the triple of AE, $AI^2=9\,AB^2$; and lastly, IAL being a right angled triangle, $IL^2=IA^2+AL^2=9\,AB^2+AB^2=10\,AB^2$.

If AB, therefore, denote the unit of any scale, it will follow, that $AK=\sqrt{2}$, $AD=\sqrt{3}$, $IK=\sqrt{5}$, $IG=\sqrt{6}$, $IC=\sqrt{7}$, $GH=\sqrt{8}$, and $IL=\sqrt{10}$.

GEOMETRICAL ANALYSIS.

GEOMETRICAL ANALYSIS.

ANALYSIS is that procedure by which a proposition is traced up, through a chain of necessary dependence, to some known operation, or some admitted principle. It is alike applicable to the investigation of truth in a theorem, or the discovery of the construction of a problem. Analysis, as its name imports, is thus a sort of inverted form of solution. Assuming the hypothesis advanced, it remounts, step by step, till it has reached a source already explored. The reverse of this process constitutes *Synthesis*, or *Composition*,—which is the mode usually employed for explaining the elements of science. Analysis, therefore, presents the medium of invention; while synthesis naturally directs the course of instruction.

BOOK I.

DEFINITIONS.

1. *Quantities* are said to be *given*, which are either exhibited, or may be found.

2. A *ratio* is said to be *given*, when it is the same as that of two given quantities.

3. *Points, lines,* and *spaces*, are said to be *given in position*, if they have always the same situation, and are either actually exhibited, or may be found.

4. A *circle* is *given in position*, when its centre is given; it is *given in magnitude*, if its radius be given.

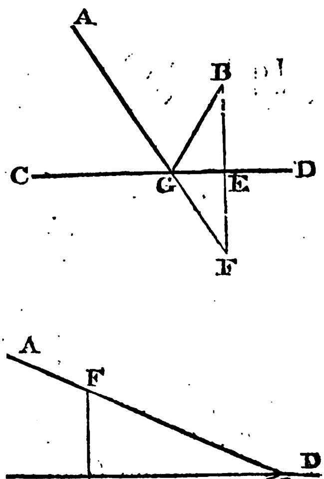
5. *Rectilineal figures* are said to be *given in species*, when figures similar to them are given.

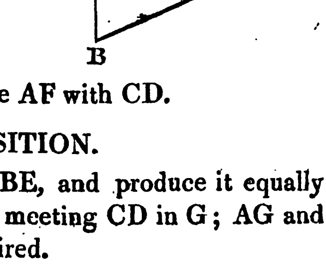
PROP. I. PROB.

From two given points, to draw straight lines, making equal angles at the same point in a straight line given in position.

Let A, B be two given points, and CD a straight line given in position; it is required to draw AG, GB, so that the angles AGC and BGD shall be equal.

ANALYSIS.





From B, one of the given points, let fall the perpendicular BE, and produce it to meet AG, or its extension in F. The angle BGE, being equal to AGC, is equal to the vertical angle FGE, the right angle BEG is equal to FEG, and the side GE is common to the triangles GBE and GFE, which, (I. 23. El.) are therefore equal, and hence the side BE is equal to FE. But the perpendicular BE is given, and consequently FE is given both in position and magnitude; whence the point F is given, and therefore G the intersection of the straight line AF with CD.

COMPOSITION.

Let fall the perpendicular BE, and produce it equally on the opposite side, join AF meeting CD in G; AG and BG are the straight lines required.

For the triangles GBE and GFE, having the side BE equal to FE, GE common, and the contained angle BEG equal to FEG, are (I. 3. El.) equal; and consequently the angle BGE is equal to FGE, or AGC.

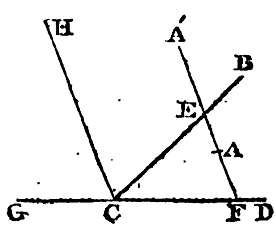
PROP. II. PROB.

Through a given point, to draw a straight line at equal angles with two straight lines given in position.

Let A be the given point, and CB, CD the straight lines which are given in position.

ANALYSIS.

Draw (I. 26. El.) CH parallel to FE, and produce DC. The exterior angle GCH (I. 34. El.) is equal to CFE, and ECH is equal to the alternate angle CEF; but the angle CFE is equal to CEF, and consequently GCH is equal to ECH, and the angle GCE is bisected by the straight line CH. Wherefore (I. 5. El.) CH is given in position, and hence (I. 26. El.) the parallel EF is also given.



COMPOSITION.

Bisect (I. 5. El.) the adjacent angle GCB by the straight line CH, and parallel to this draw EF (I. 26. El.) through the given point A; the angle CEF is equal to CFE. For these angles are equal to the exterior and alternate angles GCH and ECH, and are consequently equal to each other.

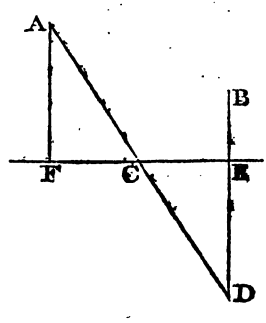
PROP. III. PROB.

Through a given point, to draw a straight line, such that the segments intercepted by perpendiculars let fall upon it from two given points, shall be equal.

The points A, B, and C being given,—to draw a straight line FE, so that the parts CF and CE, cut off by the perpendiculars AF and BE, shall be equal.

ANALYSIS.

Produce AC to meet BE in D. The right angled triangles AFC and DEC, having the vertical angle ACF equal to DCE, and the side CF equal to CE, are (I. 23. El.) equal, and hence the side CA is equal to CD. But CA is evidently given; wherefore CD and the point D are given; BD is consequently given, and hence the perpendicular CE is given.



COMPOSITION.

Produce AC till CD be equal to it, join BD, and from C (I. 6. El.) let fall the perpendicular CE upon BD; FE is the line required. For the triangles FAC and EDC, having the angles ACF, AFC equal to DCE, DEC, and the side AC equal to CD,—are equal, and consequently CF is equal to CE.

COMPOSITION.

Bisect AB and BC (I. 7. El.) in H and G, join CH and AG, and, from their point of intersection, draw FA, FB, and FC; the triangle ABC will thus be divided into three equal portions.

For, from the points A and B let fall the perpendiculars AI and BL. The triangles HAI and HBL, having the angles AHI and AIH equal to BHL and BLH, and the side AH equal to BH, are (I. 23. El.) equal, and consequently AI = BL. The triangles AFC and BFC, standing on the same base CF, and having equal altitudes AI and BL, are equal (II. 2. El.) And, in the same manner, it is shown that the triangles AFC and AFB are equal. Wherefore the whole triangle ABC is divided into three equal triangles, having their common vertex at the point F.

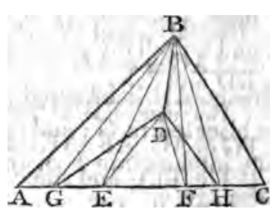
PROP. VI. PROB.

To trisect a given triangle, by straight lines drawn from a given point within it.

Let ABC be a triangle which it is required to divide into three equal portions, by the straight lines DB, DG, and DH, drawn from the point D.

ANALYSIS.

Join BG, draw DE (I. 26. El.) parallel to it, and join BE. The triangle BDG is equal to BEG, and consequently the compound space ABDG is equal to the triangle ABE, which is, therefore, the third part of the triangle ABC. Hence the base AE is the third part of AC, and the point E is



consequently given; wherefore the parallel BG is given, and also the point G and DG. In like manner, joining BH, drawing DF parallel to it,—and joining DH, it may be shown that BH is given.

COMPOSITION.

Trisect (I. 40. El.) the base AC in the points E and F, join DE, DF, and parallel to these draw BG, BH, and join DB, DG, DH; the triangle ABC is thus divided into three equal portions.

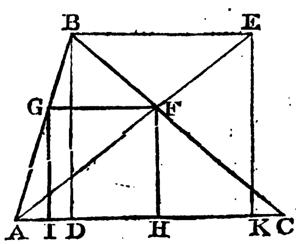
For DE being parallel to BG, the triangle BDG is equal to BEG, and therefore the space ABDG is equal to the triangle ABE. In the same manner, it is shown that the space BDHC is equal to the triangle BFC; and consequently the remaining triangles GDH and EBF are equal. But the triangles ABE, EBF, and FBC, standing on equal bases, are equal; wherefore the spaces ABDG, GDH, and BDHC, are each of them the third part of the original triangle ABC.

PROP. VII. PROB.

To inscribe a square in a given triangle.

Let ABC be the triangle in which it is required to inscribe a square IGFH.

ANALYSIS.



Join AF, and produce it to meet a parallel to AC in E, and let fall the perpendiculars BD and EK.

Because EB is parallel to FG or AC, AF : AE :: FG : EB (VI. 2. El.); and since the perpendicular EK is parallel to

FH, AF : AE :: FH : EK. Wherefore FG : EB :: FH : EK; but FG = FH, and consequently (V. 8. and 4. El.) EB = EK. Again, EK, being equal to BD, the altitude of the triangle ABC is given, and, therefore, EB is given both in position and magnitude; whence the point E is given, and the intersection of AE with BC is given, and consequently the parallel FG and the perpendicular FH are given, and thence the square IGFH.

COMPOSITION.

From B draw BD perpendicular and BE parallel, to AC, make BE equal to BD, join AE, intersecting BC in F, and complete the rectangle IGFH.

Because BE and EK are parallel to GF and FH, AE : AF :: BE : GF, and AE : AF :: EK : FH; wherefore BE : GF :: EK : FH; but BE = EK, and consequently GF = FH. It is hence evident that IGFH is a square.

PROP. VIII. PROB.

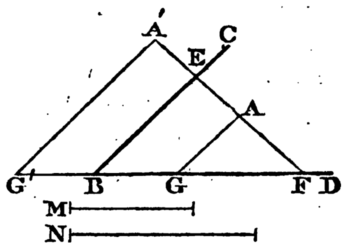
To draw a straight line through a given point, so that its portions, terminated by two straight lines given in position, shall have a given ratio.

Let A be a given point, and BC, BD two straight lines given in position; it is required to draw EAF such that EA shall be to AF as M to N.

ANALYSIS.

Draw AG parallel to BC, and meeting BD in the point G, which is thus given. The diverging lines FE, FB are cut proportionally by parallels BE, GA, (VI. 1. El.), and conse-

quently EA : AF : : BG : GF; but the ratio of EA to AF is given, and therefore the ratio of BG to GF; and BG being given, GF is given, and the point F, and hence the straight line EAF is given.



COMPOSITION.

Draw AG parallel to BC, make (VI. 3. El.) BG : GF : : M : N, and join FAE.

For, BE and AG being parallel, EA : AF : : BG : GF; but BG : GF : : M : N, and therefore EA : AF : : M : N.

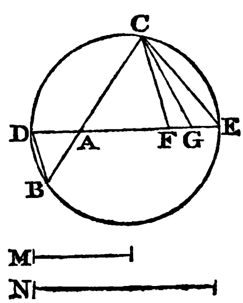
PROP. IX. PROB.

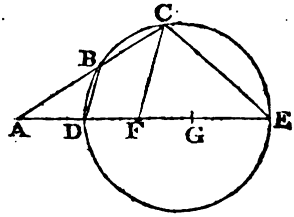
Through a given point, to draw a straight line that shall be cut in a given ratio, by the circumference of a given circle.

Let A be the given point, and BDCE the given circle; it is required to draw BC, so that BA shall be to AC as M to N.

ANALYSIS.

Draw the diameter DAE, join DB, CE, and draw CF parallel to DB. Because the point A and the centre of the circle are given, the diameter DE is given in position, and consequently its extremities D and E. But, DB being parallel to CF, BA : AC : : DA : AF (VI. 1. El.); wherefore the ratio of DA to AF is





given, and since DA is given, AF is also given. Again, BA.AC = AD.AE (III. 36. El.), and consequently AE : AC : : BA : DA; but BA : DA : : AC : AF (VI. 1. El.), whence AE : AC : : AC : AF, or AC is a mean proportional between AF and AE, and is, therefore, given. The point C is thus given, and consequently BC.

COMPOSITION.

Having drawn the diameter DE, make DA : AF : : M : N, find (VI. 18. El.) AG a mean proportional between AF and AE, and inflect AC equal to it; BAC is the straight line required.

For join DB, CF, and CE. Since the rectangle BA, AC is equal to the rectangle DA, AE, it follows that AE : AC : : BA : DA; but, by construction, AE : AC : : AC : AF, and therefore AC : AF : : BA : DA; hence (VI. 1. cor. 1. El.) CF is parallel to DB, and consequently BA is to AC, as DA to AF, that is, as M to N.

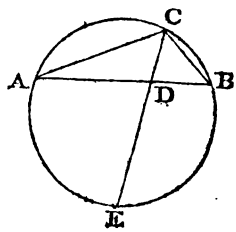
PROP. X. PROB.

From two given points in the circumference of a given circle, to inflect, to another point in the circumference, straight lines that shall have a given ratio.

From the points A and B, let it be required to inflect AC and BC in a given ratio.

ANALYSIS.

Draw (I. 5. El.) CE bisecting the vertical angle ACB. Therefore (VI. 11. El.) AC : CB : : AD : DB, and consequently the ratio of AD to DB is given, and thence (VI. 4. El.) the point D is given. But since the angle ACE is equal to BCE, the arc AE is (III. 20. cor. El.) equal to the arc EB, and therefore the point E is given. Whence, the points E and D being given, the straight line EDC is given in position, and consequently the point C and the chords AC and BC, are given.



COMPOSITION.

Bisect (III. 17. El.) the arc AEB in E, divide AB (VI. 4. El.) in the given ratio at D, join ED, and produce it to meet the opposite circumference in C; the chords AC and CB are in the given ratio.

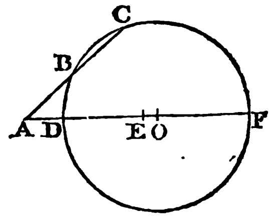
For since the arc AE is equal to BE, the angle ACD is (III. 20. cor. El.) equal to BCD, and consequently (VI. 11. El.) AC : CB : : AD : DB, that is, in the given ratio.

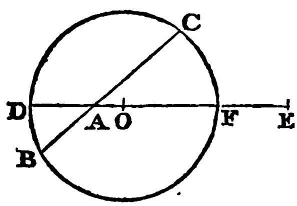
PROP. XI. PROB.

Through a given point, to draw a straight line to a circle, so that the rectangle under the part limited by the circumference and the segment included within the circle, shall be equal to a given space.

Let it be required through the point A to draw ABC, such that the rectangle AB, BC shall be equal to a given space.

ANALYSIS.





Through the centre O draw AF, and (II. 11. El.) find AE, which forms with AD a rectangle equal to the given space. Because (III. 36. El.) AB.AC = AD.AF, and, by construction, AB.BC = AD.AE; it follows (V. 6. El.) that AD : AB : : AC : AF : : BC : AE; whence (V. 19. cor. 1. El.) AD : AB : : AC — BC, or BC — AC, that is, AB : AF — AE, or AE—AF, that is, EF. Wherefore AB is a mean proportional between AD and EF; but AE being given, EF is also given, and consequently AB is given both in magnitude and position.

COMPOSITION.

Draw AF through the centre of the circle, make (II. 11. El.) the rectangle AD, AE equal to the given space, find (VI. 18. El.) a mean proportional to AD and EF, and inflect this from A towards B; the rectangle AB, BC is equal to the given space.

For (III. 26. El.) AD : AB : : AB : EF, and (V. 6. El.) AD : AB : : AC : AF, whence (V. 19. cor. 1. El.) AD : AB : : AC $\mp$ AB, or BC : AF $\mp$ EF, or AE, and consequently AD.AE = AB.BC.

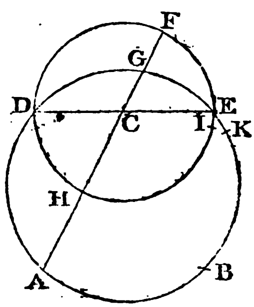
PROP. XII. PROB.

Through two given points, to describe a circle bisecting the circumference of a given circle.

Let A and B be two points, through which it is required to describe a circle ADGEB, that shall bisect the circumference of the circle HDFE.

ANALYSIS.

Join D, E, the points of intersection. Because DFE is, by hypothesis, a semicircumference, DE is a diameter, and must, therefore, pass through the centre C. Join AC, and produce it to F. Since DC = CE, it is evident (III. 36. El.) that AC.CG = DC^2 = HC.CF; but the rectangle HC, CF is given, and consequently the rectangle AC, CG is also given; and AC being given, CG is hence given, and the point G. Wherefore the three points A, G, and B being given, the circle AGB is (III. 11. El.) given.



COMPOSITION.

Through C, the centre of the given circle, draw ACF, make (VI. 3. El.) AC : HC : : CF, or HC : CG, and through the three points A, G, and B, describe (III. 11. cor. El.) the circle AGB: This will bisect the circumference HDFE.

For, through one of the points of intersection, draw the diameter DCI, and produce it to meet the circumference

of the circle AGB in K. Because AC : HC : : HC : CG, the square of HC is (V. 6. El.) equal to the rectangle AC, CG; but (III. 36. El.) $HC^2 = DC.CI$, and $AC.CG = DC.CK$; wherefore $DC.CI = DC.CK$, and $CI = CK$, or the points I and K are one, and the circle AGB passes through both extremities of the diameter of HDFE.

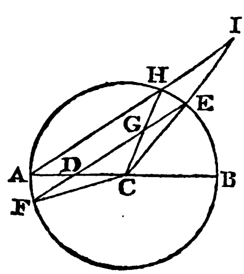
PROP. XIII. PROB.

To find a point in the diameter of a circle, such that the square of a straight line inflected from it at a given angle to the circumference, shall have a given ratio to the rectangle under the segments of the diameter.

Let it be required to draw DE at a given angle with DB, and so that the square of DE shall have a given ratio to the rectangle AD, DB.

ANALYSIS.

Make $EG = FD$, join CF, draw the radius CGH, join AH, and produce it to meet the extension of CE in I.



Because CE is equal to CF, the angle CEF is (I. 8. El.) equal to CFE. Wherefore the triangles CGE and CDF, having thus the angle CEG equal to CFD, and the sides CE and EG equal to CF and FD,—are equal, and consequently the angle ECG is equal to FCD; whence (III. 15. El.) the arc HE is equal to AF, and therefore (III. 22. cor. El.) AH is

parallel to DE. But the angle BDE is given, and thence BAH; wherefore the chord AH is given. Again, the rectangle AD,DB, being equal to FD,DE (III. 36. El.), is also equal to DE,EG; and therefore DE^2 is to DE.EG, or (V. 24. cor. 2. El.) DE is to EG, in the given ratio; but (VI. 2. El.), DE : EG : : AI : IH, consequently AI is to IH in a given ratio, and hence AH is to HI in a given ratio. Wherefore, since AH is given, IH and the point I are given; and thence IC, the point E, and DE, are all given.

COMPOSITION.

Draw AH at an inclination with AB equal to the given angle, and produce it to I, so that AI shall be to AH in the given ratio, join IC, and draw ED parallel to IA; D is the point required.

Because AI : IH : : DE : EG, DE is to EG in the given ratio, and consequently DE^2 is to DE.EG in the same ratio. But FE being parallel to AH, the arc HE is equal to AF, and thence the angle HCE is equal to ACF; the triangles CGE and CDF, having thus the side CE equal to CF, and the angles ECG and CEG equal to FCD and CFD,—are equal, and hence the side EG is equal to FD. Wherefore DE.EG = DE.FD = AD.DB, and consequently DE^2 is to AD.DB in the given ratio.

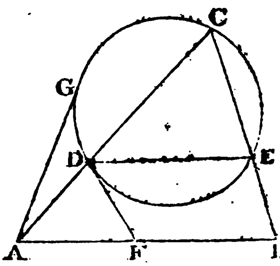
PROP. XIV. PROB.

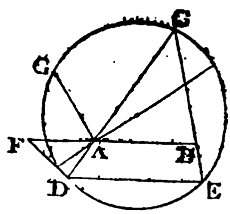
Through two given points, to draw straight lines to a point in the circumference of a given circle, so that the chord of the intercepted segment shall be parallel to the straight line that connects the given points.

Let it be required, from the points A and B, to inflect AC and BC cutting the given circumference in D and E, such that DE shall be parallel to AB.

ANALYSIS.

Draw the tangent DF meeting AB in F. The angle FDE is equal to the angle ECD in the alternate segment (III. 29. El.); but DE being parallel to AB, the angle FDE is equal to the alternate angle AFD, which is consequently equal to the angle ECD or ACB; wherefore the triangles ADF and ABC, having besides a common angle ABC, are similar, and AD : AF : : AB : AC, and hence AD.AC = AF.AB. But since the point A and the circle DCE are given, the rectangle AD, AC is also given; for it is equal to the square of the tangent AG (III. 36. cor. 2. El.), when A lies without the circumference,—and equal to the square of AG (III. 36. cor. 1. El.) a perpendicular to the diameter, in the case where that point lies within the circle. Hence the rectangle AF, AB is given; and AB being given, AF is likewise given, and consequently the point F. Wherefore the tangent FD is given in position; and since the point A is given, the straight line AC is given, and thence BC and the intersection E.





COMPOSITION.

If the point A be without the circle, draw the tangent AG; or if it lie within the circle, erect AG perpendicular to the diameter which passes through it. Make (VI. 3.

El.) AB : AG : : AG : AF, from F draw the tangent FD, join AD, and produce it to meet the opposite circumference in C, join CB, cutting the circle in E; the straight line DE is parallel to AB.

For, since AB : AG : : AG : AF, $AG^2 = AB.AF$; but (III. 36. cor. 1. and 2. El.) $AG^2 = CA.AD$, whence AB.AF = CA.AD, and consequently (V. 6. El.) AB : AC : : AF : AD. Wherefore (V. 15. El.) the triangles BAC and DAF, having the sides about their common angle proportional, are similar, and hence the angle ACB is equal to AFD; but (III. 29. El.) ACB or DCE is equal to EDF, and consequently the angle AFD is equal to EDF, and (III. 22. cor. El.) the chord DE is parallel to AB.

PROP. XV. PROB.

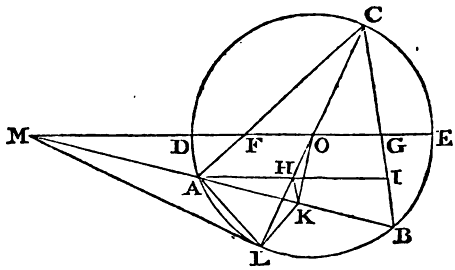
From two given points in the circumference of a given circle, to inflect straight lines to another point in the opposite circumference, such as to intercept, on either side of the centre, equal segments of a given diameter.

Let it be required, from the points A and B, to inflect AC and BC, so as to intercept, on the diameter DE, equal portions from the centre.

ANALYSIS.

Join BA, and produce it and the diameter ED to meet in M, draw COL, from O let fall the perpendicular OK upon AB, join LK, through A draw AHI parallel to DE, and join HK.

The parallels FG and AI are cut proportionally by the diverging lines CA, CH, and CI (VI. 1. El.); but FO is equal to OG, and consequently AH is equal to HI. Wherefore (II. 4. El.) HK is parallel to IB, and the angle AKH is equal to ABI (I. 25. El.); and since the angle ABI or ABC is equal to ALC (III. 20. El.), the angle AKH is equal to ALC or ALH, and hence (III. 20. cor. El.) the quadrilateral figure AHKL is contained in a circle. Consequently (III. 20. El.) the angle HAK is equal to HLK; but HAK is equal (I. 25. El.) to OMK, which is, therefore, equal to HLK or OLK, and thence the quadrilateral figure MOKL is also contained in a circle.



Wherefore (III. 20. El.) the angle MLO is equal to MKO; but MKO is a right angle, and consequently MLO is likewise a right angle, and thence (III. 28. El.) ML is a tangent. But the point M, being the concourse of ED and BA, is given, and, therefore, the tangent ML to the given circle is given (III. 30. El.); whence the diameter LC, and the point C, are given.

COMPOSITION.

Produce ED and BA to meet in M, draw the tangent ML and the diameter LC; the straight lines AC and BC will cut off from the centre equal portions, OF and OG, of the given diameter ED.

For draw AI parallel to DE, and OK perpendicular to AB, and join LK and KH.

Because ML is a tangent, MLO is a right angle, and, therefore, equal to MKO; consequently (III. 20. El.) MKL

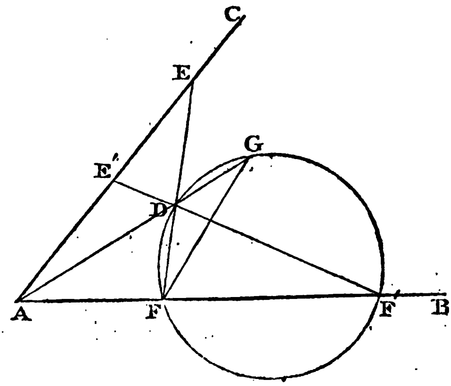
is equal to MOL, that is, (I. 25. El.) to AHL. Wherefore the quadrilateral figure AHKL is contained in a circle, and hence (III. 20. El.) the angle ALH is equal to AKH; but, for the same reason, ALH or ALC is equal to ABC or ABI, and consequently AKH is equal to ABI, and (I. 25. El.) KH parallel to BI. Now since AK is equal to KB, it follows that AH is equal to HI, and hence that FO is equal to OG.

PROP. XVI. PROB.

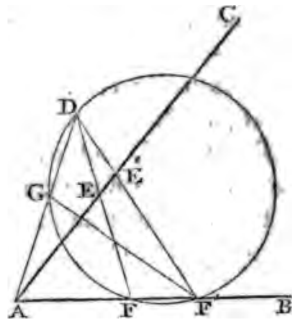
Through a given point to draw a straight line, so that the rectangle under its segments, intercepted by two straight lines given in position, shall be equal to a given space.

Let AB, AC be two straight lines, and D a point, through which it is required to draw EF, such that the rectangle under its segments ED, DF shall be equal to a given space.

ANALYSIS.



Join AD, from F draw (I. 4. El.) FG, making an angle DFG equal to DAE, and meeting AD or its extension in G, and join FG. The triangles ADE and FDG, being thus evidently similar, AD:ED::DF:DG,



and consequently (V. 6. El.) AD.DG = ED.DF. But the rectangle ED, DF is given, and therefore also the rectangle AD, DG; and since AD is given in position and magnitude, DG and the point G are given. Again, the angle DFG, being equal to DAC, is given, and thence (III. 31. El.) the segment of the circle which contains it; wherefore the contact or intersection of that arc with the straight line AB is given, and consequently the position of EF or E'F' is likewise given.

COMPOSITION.

Join AD, make the rectangle AD, DG equal to the given space, and on DG describe (III. 31. El.) an arc containing an angle equal to DAC, and meeting AB in F or F'; EDF or EDF' is the straight line required.

For the triangles ADE and FDG are similar, and consequently (VI. 13. El.) AD : ED : : DF : DG; whence (V. 6. El.) ED.DF = AD.DG; but the rectangle AD.DG is equal to the given space, and therefore the rectangle ED.DF is also equal to that space.

PROP. XVII. PROB.

Two straight lines being given, to draw, through a given point, another straight line, cutting off segments which are together equal to a given straight line.

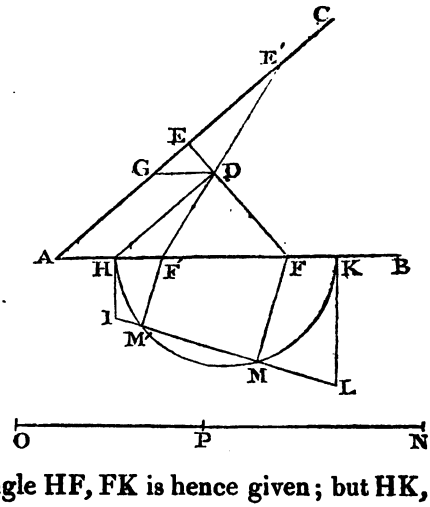
Let AB, AC be two straight lines, and D a given point, through which it is required to draw a straight line EF, so as to cut off the segments AE and AF, that are together equal to ON.

The point D may lie either within or without the angle formed by the straight lines AB and AC.

1. Let D have an internal position.

ANALYSIS.

Draw DG and DH (I. 26. El.) parallel to AB and AC. Because the point D is given, and AB,AC are given in position, the parallelogram AGDH is given. And since the triangles EDG and DFH are evidently similar, EG : GD :: DH : HF, and therefore EG.HF = GD.DH. But AG and AH, or DH and GD, being given, the rectangle GD, DH is given, and, therefore, EG.HF is given. Make FK = EG, and the rectangle HF, FK is hence given; but HK, being the excess of AF and AE above GD and DH, is given, and consequently its point of section F or F′, and the straight line EDF or E′DF′, are given.



COMPOSITION.

Draw the parallels DG and DH. From ON, the sum of the two segments AE and AF, cut off OP = AG + AH, and make HK = PN. On HK describe a semicircle,

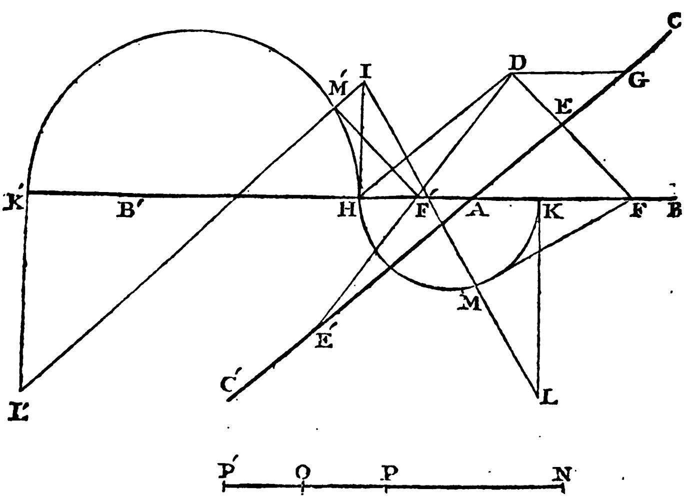
from the extremities of the diameter erect the perpendiculars HI and KL equal to AH and AG, join IL, and at right angles to this, and from the point or points where it meets the circumference, draw MF or M′F′; EDF or E′DF′ is the straight line required.

For (VI. 20. El.) HI.KL = HF.FK, and consequently AH.AG = HF.FK. But, from the similar triangles EGD and DHF, EG : GD, or AH : : DH, or AG : HF, and therefore (V. 6. El.) AH.AG = HF.EG; whence HF.FK = HF.EG, and FK = EG. And since AG + AH = OP, and HF + EG = HK = PN, it follows that AG + EG + AH + HF, or AE + AF = ON.

2. Let the point D have an external position with respect to the straight lines AB and AC.

ANALYSIS.

Draw DG parallel to AB, and DH parallel to AC and meeting AB produced. The triangles EDG and DHF being similar, EG : DG : : DH : HF, and (V. 6. El.) EG.HF = DG.DH; but DG and DH are both given, and hence the rectangle under EG and HF is given. Make FK



$= EG$, and therefore $HK = HF - EG = DG + AF - (DH - AE) = AF + AE - (DH - DG)$; whence HK and the rectangle HF,FK are given, and consequently (VI. 20. El.) the point F is given.

If $DF'E'$ intersect the straight lines AB and AC on the other side of their vertex A, the triangles $E'DG$ and $DF'H$ are still similar, and $E'G : DG :: DH : HF'$; wherefore $E'G.HF'$, being equal to DG.DH, is given. Make $F'K' = E'G$, and thence $HK' = E'G - HF' = AE' + DH - (DG - AF') = AF' + AE' + (DH - DG)$; consequently HK' and the rectangle $HF'.F'K'$ are given, and therefore (VI. 20. El.) the point F is given.

COMPOSITION.

Make OP or OP' equal to the difference of the parallels DH and DG, from H place likewise towards opposite parts $HK = PN$ and $HK' = P'N$, on HK and HK' describe semicircles, from H erect the perpendicular HI equal to DG, and, from K and K', the perpendiculars KL and $K'L'$, each equal to DH, join IL and IL', and, at right angles to these, from the points of section M and M', draw MF and $M'F'$; the straight lines DEF and $DF'E'$ will cut off segments from AB and AC, which are together equal to ON.

For (VI. 20. El.) $HF.FK = HI.KM = DG.DH$; but $DG.DH = HF.EG$, and consequently $HF.EG = HF.FK$, or $EG = FK$. Wherefore $HK = HF - EG = AF + AE - (DH - DG)$; and since $HK = PN = ON - (DH - DG)$, it follows that $AF + AE = ON$.

In like manner, it is shown that $E'G = F'K'$, and hence $HK' = E'G - HF' = AF' + AE' + (DH - DG)$; but $HK' = PN' = ON + (DH - DG)$, and consequently $AF + AE = ON$.

PROP. XVIII. PROB.

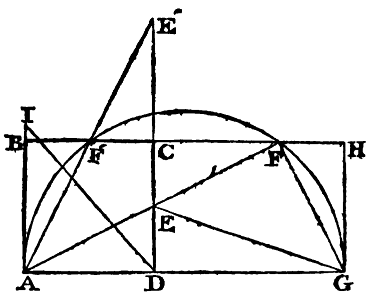
From one of the corners of a given square, to draw a straight line, such that its portion, intercepted between the opposite sides of the figure, shall be equal to a given straight line.

Let ABCD be a square, and from the point A let it be required to draw AEF, so that the part EF, intercepted between CD and BC, or their extension, may be equal to a given straight line.

ANALYSIS.

Draw FG perpendicular to AF, meeting AD produced in G, from G let fall the perpendicular GH upon BC produced, and join EG.

The angle EFH is (I. 34. El.) equal to ECF and FEC, and it is also equal to EFG and GFH; consequently, ECF and EFG being right angles, the remaining angles FEC and GFH are equal; whence the triangles EAD and FGH, having the angle AED or CEF equal to GFH, the angles at D and H both right angles, and the side AD equal to GH or CD,—are (I. 23. El.) equal, and therefore the side AE is equal to FG. But EFG and EDG being right-angled triangles, $EF^2 + FG^2 = EG^2 = ED^2 + DG^2$, (II.



14. El.), or $EF^2 + AE^2 = ED^2 + DG^2$; but $AE^2 = AD^2 + ED^2$, and hence $EF^2 + AD^2 + ED^2 = ED^2 + DG^2$, or $EF^2 + AD^2 = DG^2$. Wherefore, since EF and AD are both given, DG is also given, and consequently AG; but the right angle AFG being contained in a semicircle described upon AG, the point F or F′, its contact or intersection with BC, is given, and consequently the straight line AEF.

COMPOSITION.

Make AI equal to the given straight line, join DI, and, equal to this, produce AD to G, upon AG describe a semicircle meeting the extension of BC in F or F′, and join AEF or AF′E′; EF, the external part of that straight line, is equal to AI.

For join EF, FG, EG, and let fall the perpendicular GH upon BF. It is evident that $EF^2 + FG^2 = ED^2 + DG^2$; and FG being equal to AE, $EF^2 + AE^2 = ED^2 + DG^2$. But $AE^2 = AD^2 + ED^2$, and $DG^2 = DI^2 = AD^2 + AI^2$; whence $EF^2 + AD^2 + ED^2 = ED^2 + AD^2 + AI^2$, and therefore $EF^2 = AI^2$, and $EF = AI$.

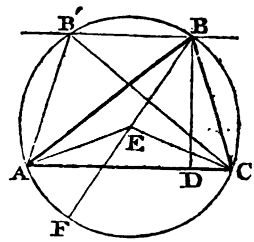
PROP. XIX. PROB.

Given the base of a triangle, its altitude, and the rectangle under its two sides,—to determine the triangle.

ANALYSIS.

About the triangle ABC describe (III. 11. cor. El.) a circle, and draw the diameter BF and the radii AE and CE.

Because the given rectangle AB.BC is (VI. 22. El.) equal to BD.BF, this rectangle is likewise given; and since the perpendicular BD is given, the diameter BF, and therefore the radii AE, CE, are given. But the base AC being given, the triangle AEC is hence given, and consequently the centre E and the circle ABCF are given. Again, because BD, the distance of the vertex of the triangle from its base, is given, that point must occur in the parallel BB′, and, being thus placed in the contact or intersection of a given straight line with a given circle, is itself given.



COMPOSITION.

On AC construct (II. 11. El.) a rectangle equal to the given space, also form on AC the triangle AEC, having AE and CE each equal to half the side of that rectangle, from E with the radius EA describe a circle, on AC erect a perpendicular DB equal to the altitude of the triangle, and through B draw a parallel meeting the circumference in B or B′; ABC is the triangle required.

For ABC has evidently the given altitude BD, and the rectangle AB.BC, being equal (VI. 22. El.) to BF.BD, is therefore equal to the given space.

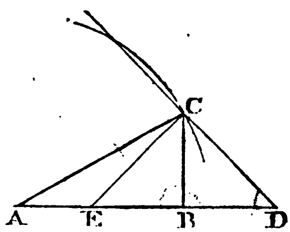
PROP. XX. PROB.

Given the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, and the sum or difference of the base and perpendicular, to construct the triangle.

ANALYSIS.

In the base AB, or its production, make BD or BE equal to the perpendicular BC, and join CD or CE.

The triangles CBD and CBE are right-angled and isosceles, and therefore the angles at D and E are each of them half a right angle. If AD, the sum of AB and BC, be given, the point D is given, and consequently the straight line DC, making a given angle with DA, is given in position; or if AE, the difference between the base and perpendicular, be given, the point E is given, and the straight line EC is given in position. But the hypotenuse AC being given, the point C must, therefore, occur in the contact or intersection of a circle described from A with that radius and the straight line CD or CE. Consequently C is given, the perpendicular CB, and thence the right-angled triangle ABC.



COMPOSITION.

Make AD or AE equal to the sum or difference of AB and BC, draw (I. 5. and 4. El.) DC or EC at an angle CDE or CED equal to half a right angle, from A with the radius AC describe a circle meeting DC or EC in the point C, and from C (I. 6. El.) let fall the perpendicular CB; ACB is the triangle required.

For the right-angled triangles CBD and CBE are evidently isosceles, and therefore AD is equal to the sum, and AE to the difference, of AB and BC.

PROP. XXI. PROB.

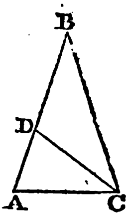
To investigate the construction of a regular pentagon or decagon.

1. Every regular polygon is capable of being inscribed in a circle, and therefore the angles, formed at the centre by drawing radii to the several corners of the figure, are each of them equal to that part of four right angles corresponding to the number of sides. Consequently the central angles of a pentagon are each equal to the fifth, and those of a decagon are each equal to the tenth, part of four right angles; but an angle at the circumference being half of that at the centre, the vertical angle of the isosceles triangle, formed in the pentagon by drawing straight lines from any corner to the extremities of the opposite side, must also be the tenth part of four right angles. Whence the construction of a regular pentagon or decagon involves the description of an isosceles triangle, whose vertical angle is equal to the tenth part of four right angles, or the fifth part of two right angles.

2. Since the vertical angle of that isosceles triangle is the fifth part of two right angles, the angles at its base must be together equal to the remaining four fifths, and each of them is consequently two fifths of two right angles. Wherefore each of the angles at the base of that component triangle is double of its vertical angle.

3. Let ABC be such an isosceles triangle, having each of the angles at A and C double of the angle at B. Draw CD bisecting the angle ACB. The angle BCD must then be equal to CBD, and consequently the side CD is equal to BD. But in the triangles BAC and CAD, the angle

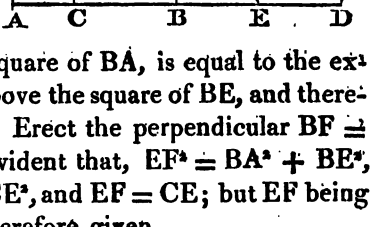
equal to ACD, the angle CAB com-
both, and consequently the remaining
BCA is equal to CDA; whence CDA
l to CAD, and therefore the side AC
l to CD. Thus the three straight
C, CD, and BD are all equal. Again,
: CD bisects the angle ACB, (VI. 11.



: AC :: AC : AD, that is, AB : BD :: BD : AD.
AB is divided in extreme and mean ratio at the
),—or the square of BD, or AC, the base of the
s triangle, is equal to the rectangle under the side
l the remaining segment AD. Whence the con-
n of a regular pentagon or decagon, depends on
dial section of a straight line.

ow let the straight line AB be divided by a medial
, or $BC^2 = BA.AC$. Add to each the rectangle
, and $BC^2 + BA.BC = BA.AC + BA.BC$, or
$A + BC) = BA^2$.

annex BD equal
d $BC.CD = BD^2$.
BD in E, and the
t lines CD and BC
sum and differ-
f CE and BE;
e the rectangle un-



) and BC, or the square of BA, is equal to the ex-
the square of CE above the square of BE, and there-
$E^2 = BA^2 + BE^2$. Erect the perpendicular BF =
d join EF. It is evident that, $EF^2 = BA^2 + BE^2$,
nsequently $EF^2 = CE^2$, and $EF = CE$; but EF being
CE and BC are therefore given.

composition of this general problem forms a series
most interesting propositions in elementary geo-
Art. 4. corresponds to Prop. 26. Book II.; Art. 3.
). 3. and 4. Book IV.; and Art. 2. and 1. coincide with
and 8. Propositions of the same Book.

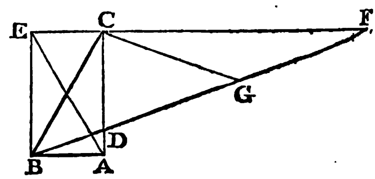
PROP. XXI. PROB.

To discover the conditions required for the trisection of an angle.

ANALYSIS.

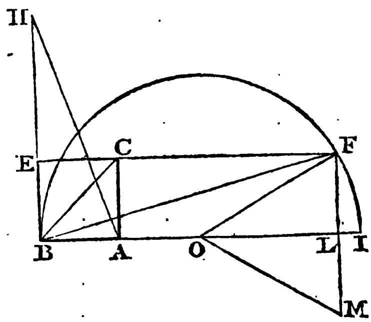
Let the angle ABD be the third part of ABC. Erect the perpendicular ADC, complete the rectangle BACE, extend the side EC to meet BD produced in F, and draw CG making the angle FCG equal to CFG.

Because the angle FCG is equal to CFG, the side GF (I. 9. El.) is equal to GC, and the exterior angle CGB (I. 34. El.) is double of either of those angles. But the angle CBA being triple of ABD, the angle CBG is double of ABD, or of CFG, and is therefore equal to CGB; whence the side BC is equal to GC. Again, from the right angles EBA and FCD, take away the equal angles ABD and FCG, and the remaining angles EBD and GCD are equal; but EBD is equal (I. 25. El.) to the alternate angle BDA, which is equal to the vertical angle CDF; consequently the angle GCD is equal to GDC, and therefore the side GD is equal to GC. Thus it appears, that the four straight lines BC, GC, GD, and GF, are all equal. Whence DF, the external segment of the trisecting line BF, is double of BC the diagonal of the rectangle BACE.



Scholium. Such is the final condition on which the trisection of an angle is made to depend. But to fulfil it in general, exceeds the powers of elementary geometry. In some very limited cases indeed, the trisection of an

angle can be effected by the mere help of straight lines and circles. Thus, when the proposed angle ABC is half a right angle, it may be trisected by the application of Prop. 18. For, produce BE so that BH = 2BC, join AH, produce BA till AI = AH, and on BI describe a semicircle meeting the production of EC in F; the angle ABF is the third part of ABC.



This result agrees with what is derived from simpler views. For $BH^2 = 4BC^2 = 8BA^2$, and $AI^2 = BH^2 + BA^2 = 8BA^2 + BA^2 = 9BA^2$; whence $AI = 3BA$, the diameter $BI = 4BA$, and consequently the radius $OI = 2BA$. Let fall the perpendicular FL, and produce it equally on the other side, join OF and OM. The triangles OFL and MOL are evidently equal, and therefore OF, OM, and FM, are all equal to 2BA, or 2FL; consequently the triangle FOM is equilateral, and the angle FOM two-thirds of a right angle; the angle FOL is hence one-third of a right angle, and the angle ABF at the circumference, being the half of it, is therefore equal to the sixth part of a right angle.

PROP. XXII. PROB.

To investigate the conditions required in finding two mean proportionals.

ANALYSIS.

Let AB and AC, the extreme terms of the continued proportion, stand at right angles, and having produced CA

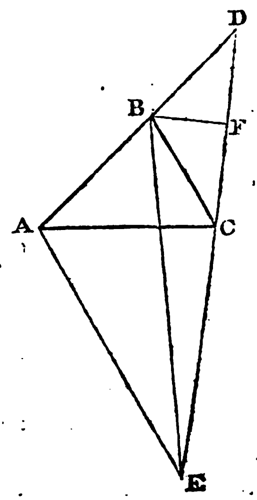
$3CG^2 = 3AC^2 + EC^2 = 2AC^2 + 2EC^2 + AC^2 - EC^2$. Now $2AC^2 + 2EC^2 = AE^2 + EB^2$, and $AC^2 - EC^2 = EF^2$; wherefore $3AG^2 = AE^2 + EF^2 + EB^2$.

PROP. XXIV. THEOR.

If a triangle have a given angle, the excess of the square of the sum of the containing sides above the square of the base, has a given ratio to the area of the triangle.

Let ABC be a triangle, in which AB is produced till BD be equal to BC; the excess of the square of AD above the square of AC, has a given ratio to the area of the triangle.

ANALYSIS.



Draw AE parallel to BC, and meeting DC produced in E, from B let fall the perpendicular BF, and join BE.

The triangle CBD being isosceles, the angle CDB (I. 8.) is equal to DCB, but (I. 25.) DCB is equal to CEA; hence the angles EDA and DEA are equal, and the triangle DAE is isosceles. Wherefore (II. 27.) $AD^2 = AC^2 + DC.CE$, or $AD^2 - AC^2 = DC.CE$. Again, because AE is parallel to BC, the triangle ABC has (II. 1.) the same area as EBC, or (II. 7.) is half the

rectangle BF,CE. Consequently the excess of the square of AD above the square of AC, is to the area of the triangle ABC, as DC.CE to $\frac{1}{2}$BF.CE, that is, (V. 3.) as DC to $\frac{1}{4}$BF, or as 4DF to BF. But the given angle ABC, being (I. 34.) equal to the two angles CDB and BCD, is double of either, and thus the angle BDF is given; whence the right angled triangle DFB is given in species, and therefore the ratio of DF to BF is given. It thence follows, that the ratio of 4DF to BF, or that of the excess of the square of AD above the square of AC to the area of the triangle ABC, is given.

GEOMETRICAL ANALYSIS.

BOOK II.

DEFINITION.

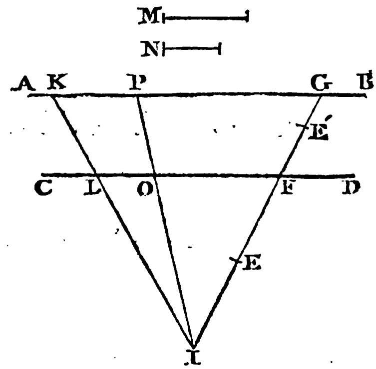
A variable quantity derived from another given or constant quantity, or which depends on it by some relation according to a given law, is necessarily confined between certain extreme limits. When it has acquired the greatest possible expansion, it is said to have reached its *maximum;* and when it has contracted into its lowest dimensions, it occupies the state of *minimum*.

PROP. I. PROB.

From a given point, to draw a straight line intercepting, on two given parallels, segments which shall have a given ratio.

Let AB and CD be two parallels, in which are two given points, A and O; and let it be required, from another given point E, to draw EF, such that PG shall be to OF in the ratio of M to N.

ANALYSIS.



Join PO, and produce it to meet EF, or its extension in I.

Because PG and OF are parallel, PI : OI :: PG : OF (VI. 2. El.); but the ratio of PG to OF is given, and hence that of PI to OI, and of PO to OI, are given. And since PO is given, OI and the point I, are given; wherefore IEF, and the segments PG and OF are given.

COMPOSITION.

Make PK = M and OL = N, join KL, PO, and produce them to meet in I, and draw IEF; PG and OF are the required segments.

For (VI, 2. El.) the parallels AB and CD being cut proportionally by the diverging lines IK, IP, and IG,—PG is to OF as KP to OL, that is, as M to N.

If M be equal to N, the point I vanishes, and EF becomes evidently a parallel to OP.

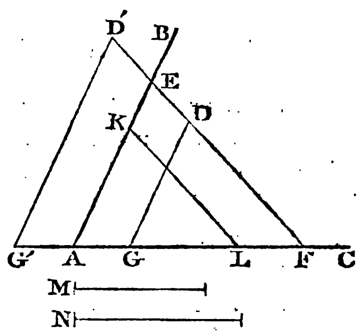
If the straight lines KL and PO meet in the given point E, the problem is by its nature indeterminate, or it admits of indefinite solution; for, in that case, the segments PE and OF, intercepted by any straight line whatever, drawn through D, have all the same ratio.

PROP. II. PROB.

Two diverging lines being given in position, to draw, through a given point, a straight line intercepting segments which shall have a given ratio.

Let it be required, through D, to draw EDF, so that AE shall be to AF in the ratio of M to N.

ANALYSIS.



Through D, (I. 26. El.) draw DG parallel to AE, and meeting AC, or its production, in G.

The triangles EAF and DGF are similar, and therefore (VI. 13.) AE : AF :: GD : GF; but the ratio of AE to AF is given, and consequently that of GD to GF. And since GD and the point G are evidently given, GF and the point F are likewise given.

COMPOSITION.

From AB and AC cut off AK = M, and AL = N, join KL, and parallel to it draw EDF through D; AE and AF are the segments required.

For (VI. 1. El.) the parallels EF and KL cut the diverging lines AB and AC proportionally, and therefore AE is to AF, as AK to AL, that is, as M to N.

PROP. III. PROB.

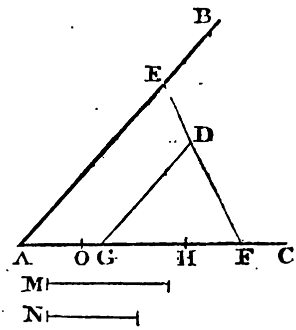
Two diverging lines being given in position, to draw, through a given point, a straight line cutting off segments—on the one from their intersection, and on the other from a given point—that shall have a given ratio.

Let AB and AC be two diverging lines, it is required, through the point D, to draw EDF, so that AE shall be to the part OF, in the ratio of M to N.

ANALYSIS.

Draw DG parallel to AE, and meeting AC, or its production in G, and make AE : GD :: OF : OH.

By alternation, AE : OF :: GD : OH; but the ratio of AE to OF is given, and thence that of GD to OH; and since GD and the point G are given, OH and the point H are also given. Again, because AE : GD :: OF : OH, and (VI. 2. El.) AE : GD :: AF : GF, it follows that OF : OH :: AF : GF; whence (V. 10. El.) FH : OH :: AG : GF, and (V. 6. El.) GF.FH = AG.OH. But AG and OH are both given, and consequently the rectangle under the segments OF and FH of the given portion GH is also given, and thence the point of section F is given, and the straight line EDF.



COMPOSITION.

Make GD to OH, as M to N, and (VI. 20. El.) divide GH in F, so that the rectangle GF, FH shall be equal to AG,OH, and draw EDF; then the segment AE is to OF as M to N. Since GF.FH = AG.OH, therefore FH : OH :: AG : GF, and (V. 10. El.) OF : OH :: AF : GF: but (VI. 2. El.) AE : GD :: AF : GF, and consequently AE : GD :: OF : OH, and alternately AE : OF :: GD : OH, that is in the given ratio.

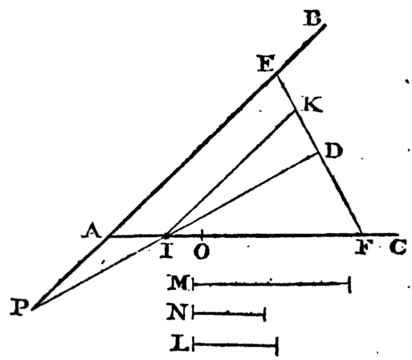
PROP. IV. PROB.

Two diverging lines being given in position, to draw, through a given point, a straight line, cutting off segments from given points in a given ratio.

Let AB and AC be two diverging lines; it is required, through the point D, to draw EDF, so that PE shall be to OF in the ratio of M to N.

ANALYSIS.

Join DP cutting AF in I, and, through I, draw IK parallel to AB, and meeting EF in K.



Because the points D and P are given, the straight line DP is given in position, and consequently its intersection I with AC is given, whence IK, being parallel to AB, is likewise given in position. But (VI. 2. El.) PE : IK :: PD : ID, and since PD and ID are both given, the ratio of PE to IK is given; consequently, the ratio of PE to OF being given, the ratio of IK to OF is given. Wherefore, by the last proposition, the straight line KDF is given in position.

COMPOSITION.

Join PD and draw IK parallel to AB, make M to L, as PD to ID, and draw, by the last proposition, KDF, so that

and GH being given, their ratio is given, and hence that of PF.OE to HE.OE; wherefore the rectangle PF, OE being given, the rectangle under the segments HE and OE of the given straight line HO is likewise given; whence (VI. 20. El.) the point E is given, and consequently the straight line PGE.

COMPOSITION.

Draw GO and GP, find (II. 8. El.) HK the side of rectangle GP, HK which is equal to the given space, and (VI. 20. El.) divide HO in the point E, so that the rectangle under its segments HE and OE shall be equal to the rectangle HG,HK, and join GFE; this is the straight line required.

For HE : PF :: HG : GP, and hence (V. 13. El.) HE.OE : PF.OE :: HG.HK : GP.HK; but, by construction, the rectangle HE.OE is equal to GH.HK, and consequently (V. 4. El.) PF.OE = GP.HK, or the given space.

PROP. VII. PROB.

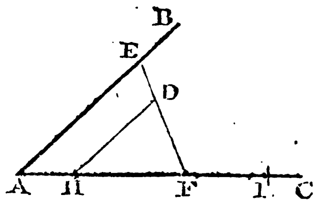
To draw through a given point a straight line, cutting from two given diverging lines, segments which shall contain a given rectangle.

Let AB and AC be two diverging lines given in position, and let it be required from the point D, to draw DFE, so that the rectangle under the segments AE, AF shall be equal to a given space.

ANALYSIS.

Draw HD parallel to AB, and make (II. 8. El.) the rectangle DH.AI equal to the given space.

Because AE.AF = DH.AI, AE : DH :: AI : AF (V. 6. El.), but AE : DH :: AF : FH (VI. 2. El.), and therefore AF : FH :: AI : AF; whence (V. 9. El.) AH : AF :: IF : AI, and (V. 6. El.) AH.AI = AF.IF. Now DH, being parallel to AB, is given, and consequently AI is given; wherefore the rectangle AH, AI being given, AF.IF is also given; and since AI is given, its internal or external section is (VI. 20. El.) given.



COMPOSITION.

Draw DH parallel to AB, find (II. 8. El.) AI, which contains with DH a rectangle equal to the given space, and divide AI (VI. 20. El.) so that the rectangle under its segments AF, FI shall be equal to the rectangle AI, AH; EDF is the straight line required. For, by construction, AF.IF = AI.AH, whence (V. 6. El.) AH : AF :: IF : AI, and (V. 10. El.) AF : FH :: AI : AF; but AF : FH :: AE : DH, and consequently AE : DH :: AI : AF, and (V. 6. El.) AE.AF = DH.AI.

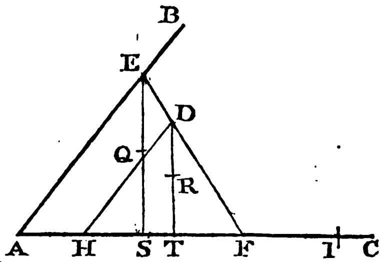
PROP. VIII. PROB.

Through a given point to draw a straight line, which shall, by its intersection with two given diverging lines, form a triangle containing a given space.

Let it be required, through the point D, to draw a straight line, EDF intercepting, between the diverging lines AB and AC, a triangle AEF, which shall contain a given space.

ANALYSIS.

Draw DH parallel to AC, upon which let fall the perpendiculars ES and DT, and find (II. 11. and 7. El.) AI the base of a triangle, having the altitude DT, and containing the given space.



Because the rectangles ES.AF and DT.AI are (I. 7. El.) each double of the triangles AEF and ADI, they are equal, and consequently (VI. 13. El.) ES : DT :: AI : AF. But the triangles AES and HDT are evidently similar, and therefore AE : ES :: HD : DT, or alternately AE : HD :: ES : DT; whence AE : HD :: AI : AF, and AE.AF = HD.AI. Now HD is given, and consequently AI; wherefore the rectangle AE.AF is given, and thence, by the last proposition, the straight line EDF is given in position.

COMPOSITION.

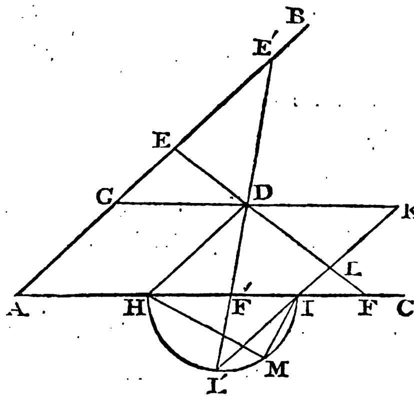
Draw DH parallel to AB, let fall the perpendicular DT, bisect this in the point R, find (II. 11. El.) the side AI, which with RT contains a rectangle equal to the given space, and, by the last proposition, draw EDF, such that the rectangle AE.AF shall be equal to DH.AI.

Having let fall the perpendicular ES, and bisected it in Q, the triangles AES and HDT are similar; whence AE : ES :: HD : DT, and alternately AE : HD :: ES : DT, or (VI. 13. El.) AE : HD :: QS : RT; wherefore AE.AF : HD.AI :: QS.AF : RT.AI; but the rectangle AE.AF = HD.AI, and hence (V. 4. El.) QS.AF = RT.AI, or the triangle AEF is equal to the given space.

This problem will admit of a simpler construction, in the case where the given point D lies between the diverging

lines AB and AC. For draw DG parallel to AC, and make (II. 11. El.) the rhomboid AGKI equal to the given space.

Because the triangle AEF is equal to the rhomboid AGKI, take away from both the figure AGDLI, and the triangles GED and ILF remain equal to the triangle DLK; but these supplementary triangles, being formed by parallel lines, are evidently similar, and consequently the homologous sides GD and IF are (VI. 34. El.) sides of a right angled triangle, of which DK is the hypotenuse; wherefore (II. 14. El.) $GD^2 + IF^2 = DK^2$, or (I. 29. El.) $IF^2 = HI^2 - AH^2$. And since HI and AH are both given, it follows that IF is given.



COMPOSITION.

Construct the rhomboid AGKI equal to the given space, draw DH parallel to AB, on HI describe a semicircle, in which inflect HM equal to AH, join IM, and make IF, or IF′, equal to it; EDF, or E′DF′, is the base of the required triangle.

For (III. 26. El.) HMI being a right angle, $IH^2 = HM^2 + IM^2$ (II. 14. El.), or $DK^2 = GD^2 + IF^2$; whence (VI. 34. El.) the triangle DLK, or DLK′, is equal to the triangles GED and ILF, or to GE′D and IL′F′; and, adding to both the excess of the rhomboid AK above the triangle DLK, or DL′K′, the rhomboid AK is equal to the triangle AEF, or AE′F′, which is, therefore, equal to the given space.

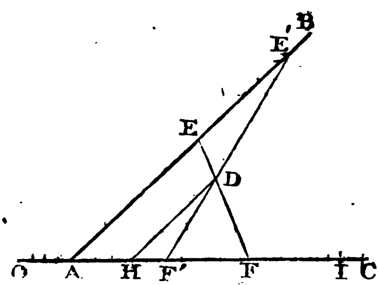
PROP. IX. PROB.

Through a given point to draw a straight line, cutting off segments, from two given diverging lines—on the one from their intersection, and on the other from a given point—which shall contain a given rectangle.

Let it be required to draw EDF, so that the rectangle AE, OF shall be equal to a given space.

ANALYSIS.

Draw DH parallel to AB, and (II. 11. El.) make the rectangle DH.OI equal to the given space; OI and the point I are, therefore, given. And since AE.OF = DH.OI, it follows that AE : DH :: OI : OF; but (VI. 2. El.) AE : DH :: AF : FH, and consequently AF : FH :: OI : OF. Wherefore (V. 11. El.) AF : AH :: OI : FI, and (V. 6. El.) AF.FI = AH.OI; hence AI and the rectangle under its segments, AF and FI, are given, and consequently (VI. 20. El.) the point of section F and the straight line EDF are given.



COMPOSITION.

Having drawn DH parallel to AB, and made the rectangle DH.OI equal to the given space, divide AI (VI. 20. El.) in F, or F', such that the rectangle under its segments shall also be equal to the rectangle AH.OI; EDF, or E'DF',

is the required straight line. For since AF.FI = AH.OI, AF : AH :: OI : IF; whence (V. 11. El.) AF : FH :: OI : OF; but (VI. 2. El.) AF : FH :: AE : DH, and, therefore, AE : DH :: OI : OF, and the rectangle AE.OF is equal to DH.OI, or the given space.

PROP. X. PROB.

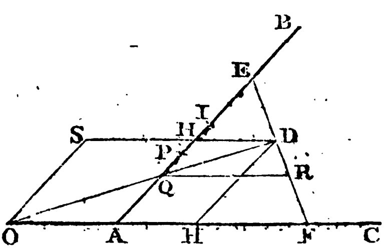
Through a given point, to draw a straight line, cutting off segments, from given points, on two given diverging lines, that shall contain a given rectangle.

Let it be required to draw EDF, so that the rectangle OF.PE shall be equal to a given space.

ANALYSIS.

Join DO meeting AE in Q, and draw QR parallel to AB.

Because (VI. 2. El.) DO : DQ :: OF : QR, it follows (V. 24. cor. 2. El.) DO : DQ :: OF.PE : QR.PE; but DO and DQ are evidently given, and therefore the rectangle OF.PE has to QR.PE a given ratio; and since OF.PE is given, the rectangle QR.PE is likewise given, and QR, being parallel to AC, is given in position. Whence, by the last proposition, the intersecting line EDR or EDF, is given in position.



COMPOSITION.

Join DQO, draw DH parallel to AC, and produce it meeting in S the parallel to AB, make the rectangle DS.PI equal to the given space, and divide QP in E, such that the rectangle under its segments PE, IE shall be equal to the rectangle AH.PI; EFD is the straight line required.

For DQ : DO :: DH : DS :: QR : OF, and consequently (V. 24. cor. 2. El.) DH.PI : DS.PI :: PE.QR : PE.OF; but, by the last proposition, DH.PI = PE.QR, whence the rectangle DS.PI, or the given space, is equal to the rectangle PE.OF.

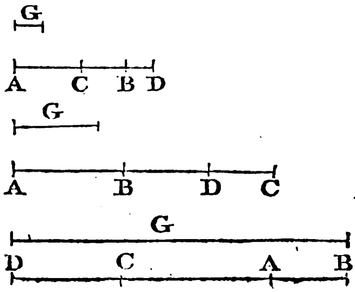
PROP. XI. PROB.

To divide a given straight line, so that the rectangle under one of its segments and a given line, shall be equal to the square of the other segment.

Let it be required to divide AB in C, such that the rectangle under AC and G shall be equal to the square of CB.

ANALYSIS.

Make BD = G, and since AC.G = CB², it follows (V. 6. El.) that AC : CB :: CD : BD; and consequently (V. 9. El.) AB:CB::CB:BD; whence (V. 6. El.) AB.BD = CB.CD. But the rectangle AB.BD is given,



and, therefore, the rectangle CB.CD is also given; and BD being given, the point of section C is (VI. 20. El.) thence given.

COMPOSITION.

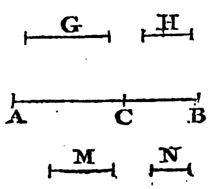
In the same straight line AB, make BD equal to G, and (VI. 20. El.) cut BD such that the rectangle CB.CD be equal to AB.BD; C is the point of section required. For it is evident (V. 6. El.) that AB : CB :: CD : BD, and consequently (V. 9. El.) AC : CB :: CB : BD; wherefore (V. 6. El.) AC.BD, or AC.G $=$ CB^2.

PROP. XII. PROB.

To divide a given straight line, so that the rectangle under one of its segments and a given line shall have a given ratio to the square of the other segment.

Let it be required to divide AB in C, such that AC$\times$G : CB^2 :: M : N.

ANALYSIS.



Make (VI. 3. El.) G : H :: M : N, and H is given; but AC$\times$G :: CB^2 :: G : H, and consequently (VI. 3. El.) CB^2 $=$ AC$\times$H; wherefore, by the last proposition, the section of AB is given.

COMPOSITION.

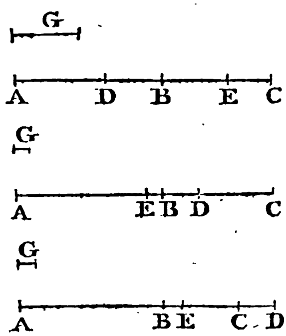
Having made M : N :: G : H, let AB be divided by the last proposition, so that AC$\times$H$=$CB^2; then AC$\times$G : CB^2 :: M : N. For AC$\times$G : AC$\times$H, or CB^2, :: G : H, or M : N.

PROP. XIII. PROB.

In the same straight line, three points being given, to find a fourth point, such that the rectangle under its distance from the first and a given line, shall be equal to the rectangle under its distances from the second and third points.

Let it be required to find the point D, so that $AD \times G = CD \times BD$.

ANALYSIS.



Make $BE = G$, and because $AD \times G = CD \times BD$, it follows that $AD : CD :: BD : BE$; whence (V. 9. El.) $AC : CD :: DE : BE$, and $AC \times BE = CD \times DE$. But the rectangle $AC \times BE$ being evidently given, the rectangle under the segments CD, DE of CE, a given straight line, is also given, and consequently (VI. 20. El.) the point of section D is given.

COMPOSITION.

Having made $BE = G$, divide (VI. 20. El.) CE in D, so that $CD \times DE = AC \times BE$; D is the point required.

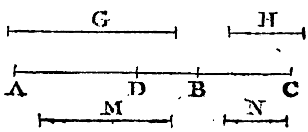
For (V. 6. El.) $AC : CD :: DE : BE$, and (V. 10. El.) $AD : CD :: BD : BE$; whence $AD \times BE$, or $AD \times G$, $= CD \times BD$.

PROP. XIV. PROB.

In the same straight line, three points being given, to find a fourth, so that the rectangle under its distance from the first and a given line, shall have a given ratio to the rectangle under its distances from the second and third points.

Let it be required to find a point D, such that $AD \times G : CD \times BD :: M : N$.

ANALYSIS.



Make $M : N :: G : H$, whence H is given; but since $AD \times G : CD \times BD :: G : H$, it is evident that $AD \times H = CD \times BD$; wherefore, by the last proposition, the point of section D is given.

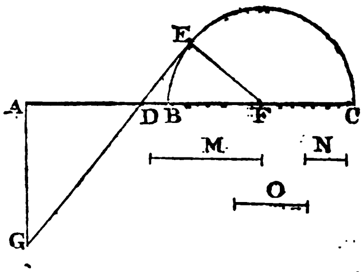
COMPOSITION.

Having made $G : H :: M : N$, find, by the last proposition, the point D, so that $CD \times BD = AD \times H$; D is the section required. For (V. 24. cor. 2. El.) $AD \times G : AD \times H$, or $CD.BD :: G : H$, or $M : N$.

PROP. XV. PROB.

In the same straight line, three points being given, to find a fourth, so that the square of its distance from the first, shall be equal to the rectangle under its distances from the second and third points.

whence the ratio of AD to DE is given. Join EF, and produce ED to meet AG a perpendicular to AC. The triangles ADG and EDF are evidently similar, and therefore AD:AG::DE:EF, or alternately AD : DE :: AG : EF; and since the ratio AD to DE is given, the ratio of AG to EF is also given, and the radius EF being given, AG and the point G are thence given; wherefore the tangent GE and its intersection D with AC, are given.



COMPOSITION.

Let M : N be the given ratio, and to these find (VI. 18. El.) a mean proportional O, on BC describe a semicircle, make O : M :: BF : AG, a perpendicular erected from A, and (III. 30. El.) draw the tangent GDE; the intersection D is the point required.

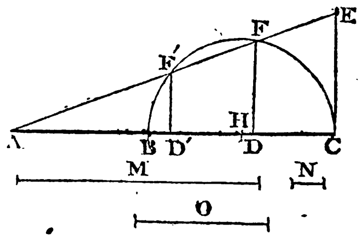
For, the triangles DAG, and DEF being similar, AD:AG::DE:EF, and alternately AD:DE::AG:EF, or M:O; wherefore (V. 21. cor. 1. El.) $AD^2 : DE^2 :: M^2 : O^2$, that is, (V. 23. El.) M : N; but (III. 36. El.) $DE^2 = CD \times DB$, and consequently $AD^2 : CD \times DB :: M : N$.

2. When D lies between the points B and C.

ANALYSIS.

On BC describe a semicircle, draw DF perpendicular to the diameter, and meeting the circumference in F, and join AF.

Because (III. 36.) $BD \times DC = DF^2$, the ratio of AD^2 to DF^2 is given, and consequently that of AD to DF; but



the angle ADF, contained by these sides, being a right angle, is given, and therefore the triangle AFD is given in species. Hence the angle DAF is given, and the straight line AF given in position; wherefore the intersection F or F′, the perpendicular FD, or F′D′, and the point D, or D′, are all given.

COMPOSITION.

Let M:N express the given ratio, and to these find (V. 18. El.) a mean proportional O, make (VI. 3. El.) M to O as AC to the perpendicular CE, join AE meeting the circumference of a semicircle described on BC in the point F or F′, and let fall the perpendicular FD or F′D′; then $M : N :: AD^2 : BD \times DC$, or $AD'^2 : BD' \times D'C$.

For the triangle ACE is evidently similar to ADF or AD′F′, and therefore $AC : CE :: AD : DF$, and $AC^2 : CE^2 :: AD^2 : DF^2$; but (V. 23. El.) $M : N :: M^2 : O^2$, or as $AC^2 : CE^2$, and consequently $AD^2 : DF^2$, that is, $BD \times DC :: M : N$.

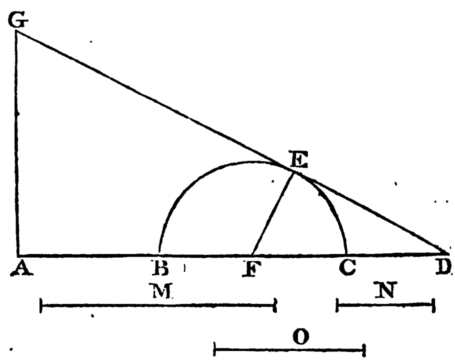
This problem evidently requires limitation; for, if AE should diverge too much from AC, it will not meet the circumference at all. Hence an extreme case will occur, when AE touches the circle. But the ratio of AC to CE, or of AD to DF, will then be the same as that of a tangent from A is to the radius HB; and consequently the limiting ratio is the duplicate of this,—or the ratio of M to N can never approach nearer to the ratio of equality than that of $AB \times AC$, or $AH^2 - HB^2$, to HB^2.

3. When the point D lies beyond B and C.

ANALYSIS.

On BC describe a semicircle, draw the tangent DE, and produce it to meet the perpendicular AG, and join E with the centre F.

Because (III. 36. El.) $BD \times DC = DE^2$, the ratio of AD^2 to DE^2 is given, and consequently that of AD to DE. But the angle DEF, being (III. 28. El.) a right angle, is equal to DAG, and the angle at D is common to the triangles DGA and DFE, which are therefore similar, and hence AD : AG :: DE : EF, or alternately AD : DE :: AG : EF. And since the ratio of AD to DE is given, that of AG to EF is also given, and EF, the half of BC, being given, AG and the point G are thence given. Wherefore the tangent GE and its intersection D with AC, are given.



COMPOSITION.

Let M : N be the given ratio, and find the mean proportional O; make O : M :: BF : AG, a perpendicular to AC, and draw (III. 30. El.) the tangent GED; then M : N :: $AD^2 : BD \times DC$.

For join EF. Because the triangles ADG and EDF are similar, AG : AD :: EF : ED, and alternately AG : EF :: AD : ED; but AG : EF :: M : O, and therefore M : O :: AD : ED, and $M^2 : O^2 :: AD^2 : ED^2$, that is, M : N :: $AD^2 : ED^2$, or $BD \times DC$.

PROP. XVII. PROB.

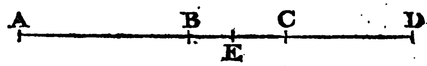
In the same straight line, four points being given, to find a fifth, such that the rectangle under its distances from the first and second points, shall have a given ratio to the rectangle under its distances from the third and fourth.

Let it be required to find a point E, so that AE×EB : DE×EC :: M : N.

1. Let M : N be a ratio of equality.

ANALYSIS.

Because AEEB = DE×EC, it is manifest that AE : CE :: DE : EB; whence (V. 9. and 8. El.) AC : BD :: CE : EB, and (V. 9. El.) AC + BD : BD :: BC : EB; but the ratio of AC + BD to BD is given, whence that of BC to EB, and, therefore, BE and the point E are given.



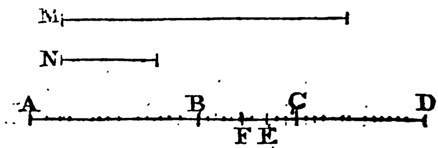
COMPOSITION.

Make AC + BD : BD :: BC : EB, and E is the point required. For (V. 10. El.) AC : BD :: CE : EB and (V. 19. cor. 1. El.) AE : ED :: CE : EB, and hence (V. 6. El.) AE×EB = CE×ED.

2. Let M : N be a ratio of majority or minority.

ANALYSIS.

Find, by the preceding construction, a point F, such that AF × FB = DF × FC.



Because AE × EB : DE × EC :: M : N, it follows that AE × EB : AE × EB — DE × EC :: M : M — N; but AE × EB — DE × EC = (AE × EB — AF × FB) + (DF × FC — DE × EC), that is, = EF (AF + BE) + EF (DF + CE), or = EF (AD + BC.) Wherefore AE × EB : EF (AD + BC) :: M : M — N; consequently the point E is assigned by prop. 14 of this Book.

The composition of the problem is thence easily derived, by retracing the steps.

PROP. XVIII. PROB.

In the same straight line, four points being given, to find a fifth, such that the rectangle under its distances from the extreme points shall have a given ratio to the rectangle under its distances from the mean points.

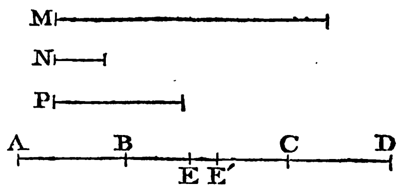
Let it be required to find a point E, so that AE × ED : BE × EC :: M : N.

1. Let AB = CD.

ANALYSIS.

Because AE × ED = (AB + BE) (AB + EC), it is evident that AE × ED = AB × AC + BE × EC, whence

$AE \times ED : AB \times AC :: M : M - N$. The ratio of $AE \times ED$ to $AB \times AC$ is therefore given, and the rectangle under AE and ED, the segments of AD, being thus given, the point E is assigned by VI. 20 of the Elements.



COMPOSITION.

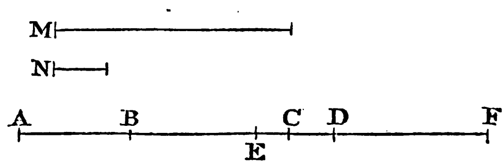
Make $M - N : M :: AB : P$, and (VI. 20. El.) cut AD in E or E′, such that $AE \times ED = P \times AC$; E is the point required. For (V. 7. El.) $M : M - N :: P : AB$, and hence (V. 24. cor. 2. El.) $M : M - N :: P \times AC$, or $AE \times ED : AB \times AC$; consequently $M : N :: AE \times ED : AE \times ED - BA \times AC$, or $BE \times EC$.

2. Let AB and CD be unequal.

ANALYSIS.

In AD produced, let the point F be such that $AF \times FD = BF \times FC$.

It is evident that $BD \times DC + FD\,(CD + BF) = BF \times FC = AF \times FD$; whence $BD \times DC = FD\,(AF - BF - CD) = FD\,(AB - CD)$. But $BD \times DC$ is given, and therefore the rectangle $FD\,(AB - CD)$ is given; and since $AB - CD$ is given, FD and the point D are given.



Again, $AE \times ED = (BE + AB)\,(EC + CD) = BE \times EC + BE \times CD + AB \times ED = BE \times EC + BD \times CD - ED \times CD + AB \times ED$;

the angle DGC is equal to DVC, and the angle DIV to DBV, and consequently the angles DVC and DBV are equal. Hence the triangles CDV and VDB, having besides a common vertical angle are similar; and, therefore, BD : DV : : DV : DC, and (V. 6. El.) $BD \times DC = DV^2$. But (VI. 17. cor. 1. El.) $DG^2 = AD \times DC$, and consequently $DG^2 - DV^2$, or (II. 14. El.) $GV^2 = AD \times DC - BD \times DC$, or $AB \times DC$. In the same manner, it is shown that $IV^2 = AC \times DB$. Whence IG is given, being the difference between the sides of two squares that are equal to the rectangles AC, DB, and AB, DC. Again, the angle BIO, being equal to the alternate angle GHI, is equal (III. 20. El.) to GZI, and the right angle OBI is equal to the angle IGZ in a semicircle; wherefore the triangles IOB and ZIG are similar, and IO : BO : : IZ, or AD : IG. Hence the limiting ratio of $AE \times ED$ to $BE \times EC$, or that which marks the state of *minimum*, is the duplicate ratio of AD to the difference of the sides of squares equal respectively to the rectangle AC, DB and to the rectangle AB, DC.

PROP. XIX. PROB.

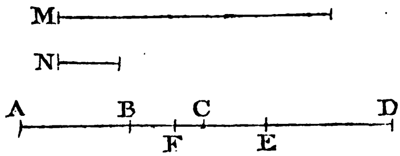
In the same straight line, given four points, to find a fifth, such that the rectangle under its distances from the first and second points, shall have a given ratio to the rectangle under its distances from the third and fourth.

Let it be required to find a point E, so that $AE \times EB$ shall be to $CE \times ED$ in a given ratio.

ANALYSIS.

Find, by the 17 prop. of this Book, a point F, such that $AF \times FB = DF \times FC$. Because $AE \times EB =$

(AF+FE)(FB+FE)=AF × FB+FE(AE+FB,) it follows, by substitution, that AE × EB=DF × FC + FE (AE + FB) =FE × FC+ED × FC + FE (AE + FB) = ED × FC + FE (AE+BC). To each add CE × ED, and AE × EB + CE × ED = ED (FC + CE) + FE (AE + BC) = FE (ED + AE + BC) = FE (AD + BC.)



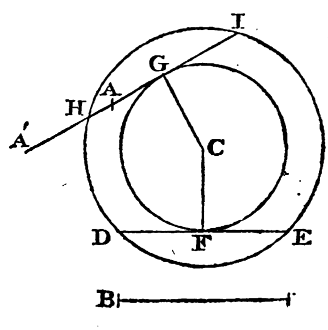
PROP. XX. PROB.

Through a given point, to draw a straight line, so that the part intercepted by the circumference of a given circle, shall be equal to a given straight line.

Let A be a point, through which it is required to draw a straight line HI, limited by a given circumference and equal to B.

ANALYSIS.

Take any point D in the given circumference, and inflect DE equal to B. Because DE is equal to B, it is equal to HI, and, therefore, (III. 12. El.) the chords HI, DE are equally distant from the centre of the circle, or CG = CF. But DE being given, CF is given,



and thence the circle described from C through F and G; wherefore the point A being given, the tangent AG to that circle is given, and consequently HI is given in position.

COMPOSITION.

Inflect DE equal to B, from C let fall the perpendicular CF, with which distance describe a concentric circle, and draw (III. 30. El.) the tangent HAI.

It is evident that the chords HI and DE, being equidistant from the centre, are both of them equal to B.

PROP. XXI. PROB.

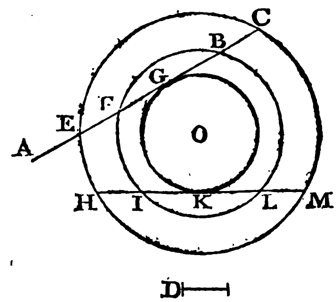
Through a given point, to draw a straight line, such that the part of it intercepted between two concentric circles shall be equal to a given straight line.

Let it be required, through the point A, to draw the straight line ABC, so that the part BC intercepted by the two concentric circles HECM and IFBL shall be equal to D.

ANALYSIS.

From any point H, in one of the circumferences, inflect HM = EC, and upon these let fall the perpendiculars OK and OG. The equal chords HM and EC are therefore

equidistant from the centre, and reciprocally IL is equal to FB; consequently the halves of these are equal, or HK=GC, and IK=GB; whence the difference HI, being equal to BC, is given. But since the point H is given, the point I and the chord HM are given; and the circle which touches at K being given, the tangent AGC is also given.



COMPOSITION.

In the circumference of one of the circles, having assumed a point H, place HI equal to D, and produce it to M, upon this let fall the perpendicular OK, with which as a radius describe a circle, and apply to it the tangent ABC; then will the intercepted portion BC be equal to D.

For the chords EC and FB are (III. 12. El.) equal to the equidistant chords HM and IL; consequently their halves are equal, or GB = IK, and GC = HK, and hence BC = HI = D.

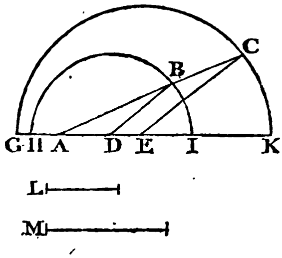
PROP. XXII. PROB.

Two circles described upon the same straight line being given, to draw from a point similarly placed in it another straight line, so that the part intercepted by the circumferences shall be equal to a given straight line.

Let D, E be the centres of the two circles, and let AD : AE :: DI : EK; it is required from A to draw ABC, such that BC shall be equal to L.

ANALYSIS.

Join BD and CE. Because AD : AE : : DI or DB : EK, or EC, therefore (VI. 1. cor. El.) DB is parallel to EC; whence AD : DE : : AB : BC, and since AD and DE are given, the ratio of AB to BC is given; but BC is given, and consequently AB is given, both magnitude and position.



COMPOSITION.

Make (VI. 3. El.) EK—DI : DI : : L : M, and from A inflect AB equal to M; ABC is the straight line required.

For since, by hypothesis, AD : AE : : DI or DB : EK or EC, DB is parallel to EC; wherefore DB or DI : EC or EK : : AC : AB, and consequently (V. 10. El.) EK—DI : DI : : BC : AB; but EK— DI : DI : : L : M or AB, whence BC : AB :: L : AB, and therefore (V. 4. El.) BC = L.

PROP. XXIII. PROB.

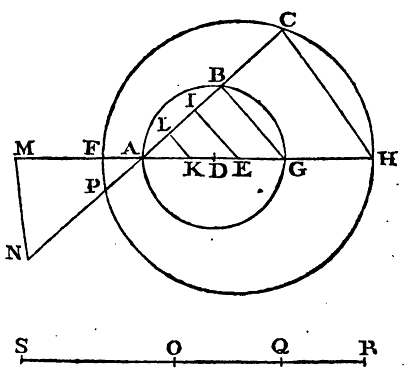
Two circles described upon the same straight line being given, to draw, from the extremity of either diameter, another straight line, so that the part of it intercepted by the circumferences shall be equal to a given straight line.

Let it be required to draw ABC, so that the intercepted portion BC shall be equal to QR.

ANALYSIS.

Join BG, CH, and FP, from E, the centre of the exterior circle, let fall upon AC the perpendicular EI, cut off IL = IB and draw LK parallel to BG, in the extension of AH make (VI. 3. EL.) AK : AG : : AF : AM, and from the point M draw MN parallel to FP, and meeting the production of AC.

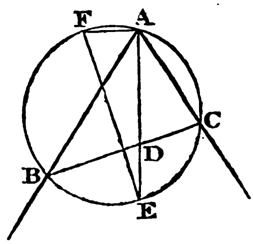
Because LK is parallel to BG and FP to MN, therefore (VI. 1. El.) AK : AG : : AL : AB, and AF : AM : : AP : AN; but, by construction, AK : AG : : AF : AM, and, consequently, AK : AG : : AL : AB : : AP : AN. Whence (V. 19. El.) AK : AG : : AL + AP or PL : AB + AN or BN. Now, since (III. 5. El.) IP = IC, and IL = IB, therefore PL = BC or QR; and LK, IE, and BG being parallel lines, KE = EG (VI. 2. El.) and thence AK is given; wherefore three terms of the analogy being given, the fourth term BN is given, and consequently BN + BC, or NC, is given. But the angle ACH is equal to AFP (III. 20. El.) which again (I. 25 El.) is equal to AMN, and hence the triangles CAH and ANM, having also the same vertical angle, are similar, consequently AH : AC : : AN : AM, and (V. 6. El.) AH . AM = AC . AN. wherefore NC and the rectangle under its segments AC, AN being given, AC is given in magnitude (VI. 20. El.) and hence likewise in position.

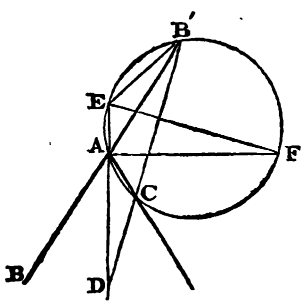


straight line AD which bisects the angle BAC, to draw BC equal to a given straight line.

ANALYSIS

About the points B, A and C, describe (III. 11. El.) a circle, draw the diameter EF, and join AF. Because BC and the angle BAC are given, the circumscribing circle (III. 31. El.) and consequently the triangle BAC, are given in magnitude: But since the angle BAE is equal to CAE, the arc BE is (III. 20. cor. El.) equal to CE; and hence the chord BC is bisected at right angles by the diameter EF. Wherefore AD being given, AE is, by the last proposition, given in magnitude, and thence DB is given in magnitude and consequently in position.





COMPOSITION.

On the given straight line describe (III. 31. El.) a segment, BAC containing an angle equal to the given angle, and complete the circle, bisect the arc BAC in E, and from that point draw, by the last proposition, EAD, such that AD shall be equal to the distance of the given point from the vertex; and DB, DC are the segments of the required line, from which its position is immediately determined.

For the angle BAC is equal to the given angle, and AD bisects it, since the arc BE=CE; but AD is besides equal

to the distance of the given point from the vertex, and BC is equal to the given straight line. Wherefore all the points and lines retain, by this construction, their relative position.

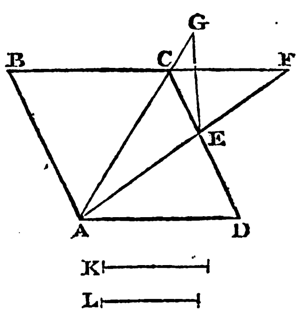
PROP. XXVI. PROB.

Between the side of a given rhombus, and its adjacent side produced, to insert a straight line of a given length, and directed to the opposite corner.

Let ABCD be a rhombus, of which the side BC is produced; it is required, from the opposite corner A, to draw AEF, such that the exterior portion EF shall be equal to a given straight line.

ANALYSIS.

Join AC, and, meeting this produced, draw EG, making the angle AEG equal to ACF. The triangles CAF and EAG are evidently similar, and AC:CF::AE:EG; but CE being parallel to AB, BC:CF::AE:EF (VI. 1. El.); whence (V. 17. El.) AC : BC : : EF : EG. But AC, BC, and EF being given, EG is (VI. 3. El.) also given. Again, the angle ACD is (I. 29. cor. El.) equal to ACB and therefore to FCG; conse-



quently adding ECF to each, the whole angle ACF, or AEG, is equal to ECG. Hence the triangles AGE and EGC are similar, and AG : EG :: EG : GC, or AG.GC=EG². Wherefore the rectangle AG, GC is given, and consequently (VI. 20. El.) the point G, and thence the point E and the straight line AF.

COMPOSITION.

Let the intercepted segment be equal to K, join AC, make AC : BC :: K : L, divide AC in G (VI. 20. El.) so that AG. GC=L², and from G, with the radius L, describe a circle cutting CD in E; AEF is the straight line required.

For since AG. GC = L² = EG², AG : EG :: EG : GC, and therefore the triangles AGE and EGC are similar, and the angle AEG is equal to ECG, or ACF; whence the triangles AFC and AGE are likewise similar, and AC : CF :: AE : EG; but (VI. 1. El.) BC : CF :: AE : EF, and consequently (V. 17. El.) AC : BC :: EF : EG. Now AC : BC :: K : L, or EG; wherefore EF = K.

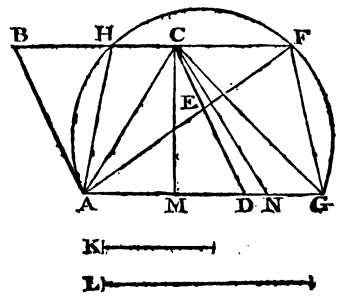
Otherwise thus.

ANALYSIS.

Draw FG making the angle AFG equal to ADC, cut off CH = CE, let fall the perpendicular CM, make MN = MA, and join CN, CG, and AH.

The triangles CMA and CMN are evidently equal, and

therefore AC is equal to CN, and the angle CAM equal to CNM; and since the diagonal AC bisects the angle BCD of the rhombus, the triangles ACE and ACH are (I. 3. El.) likewise equal, and hence AE is equal to AH, and the angle CAE equal to CAH. And because the triangles ADE



and AFG are similar, AD : AE : : AF : AG and AD.AG = AE.AF. But the angle ACD, being equal to CAD, is equal to CNA, and consequently the triangles ADC and ACN are similar; whence AN : AC : : AC : AD, and therefore AN. AD = AC^2. Again, because AC bisects the vertical angle HAF (VI. 23. El.) FA.AH = AC^2 + FC.CH, that is, FA.AE = AC^2 + FC.CE.; wherefore FC.CE = FA.AE — AC^2, that is, AG. AD—AN.AD, or NG.AD. But BA and CE being parallel, FC : EF : : AD : AE : : AF : AG, and CE : EF : : AB or AD : AF; consequently (V. 21. El.) FC.CE : EF^2 :: AD : AG :: (V. 13. El.) NG × AD : NG × AG; since, therefore, FC.CE = NG and AG, it follows (V. 8. and 4. El.) that EF^2 = NG. AG. Now NG.AG = (II. 23. El.) MG^2 — MA^2 = (II. 29. cor. El.) CG^2 — CA^2; wherefore EF^2 = CG^2 — CA^2, or CG^2 = CA^2 + EF^2. Hence CG and the point G are given, and the angle AFG, being equal to ADC, is (III. 31. El.) contained in a given segment of a circle; wherefore the intersection F and the inflected line AF, are given.

COMPOSITION.

Let K be equal to the intercepted portion of the straight line which is to be inflected from A, and find (II. 16. El.) L the side of a square equivalent to the squares of K and of the diagonal AC, produce AD, and from C place CG

equal to L, upon AG describe (III. 31. El.) a segment of a circle containing an angle equal to ADC, and join A with the point of intersection F; AF is the straight line required.

For let fall the perpendicular CM, make MN = MA, and join GF,CN, and AH.

The triangles CMA and CMN are evidently equal. But the triangles AHC and AEC are likewise equal; For the angle AFG, being equal to ADC, is equal to the angle adjacent to DAB, and consequently (III. 29. cor. El.) AB touches the circle at A; whence the angle BAH = HFA = DAE, and taking these from the equal angles BAC and DAC, there remains CAH = CAE, but the angles ACH and ACE are also equal, and the side AC is common to the two triangles; wherefore AH = AE, and CH = CE. And because the triangles ADE and AFG are similar, AD : AE :: AF : AG, and AD. AG = AE. AF. Again, the triangles ANC and ACD being similar, AN : AC :: AC : AD, and AN. AD = AC^2. But FC : EF :: AD : AE :: AF : AG, and CE : EF :: AB, or AD : AF; consequently FC $\times$ CE : EF^2 :: AD : AG :: NG $\times$ AD : NG $\times$ AG; and since AC bisects the angle FAH, FG.CE + AC^2 = FA.AH = FA.AE = AG.AD = AN.AD + NG.AD, it follows that FC.CH, or FC. CE = NG. AD, and hence EF^2 = NG. AG. Now K^2 = $CG^2 - AC^2$ = NG. AG; wherefore EF^2 = K^2, and EF = K.

PROP. XXVII. PROB.

Through two given points, to describe a circle touching a straight line given in position.

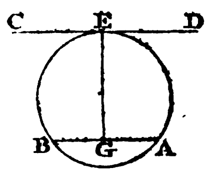
Let it be required to describe a circle through the points A, B, and touching the straight line CD.

It is evident that CD must either be parallel or inclined to the straight line which joins the points A and B.

1. Let CD be parallel to AB.

ANALYSIS.

From the point of contact E, draw (I. 6. El.) EG perpendicular to CD. Hence (III. 28. cor. El.) EG passes through the centre of the circle, and since it is also perpendicular to AB (I. 25. El.) it bisects that chord at right angles (III. 5. El.) the point G is, therefore, given, and the perpendicular GE; consequently the three points A, E, and B being thus given, the circle AEB is given.



COMPOSITION.

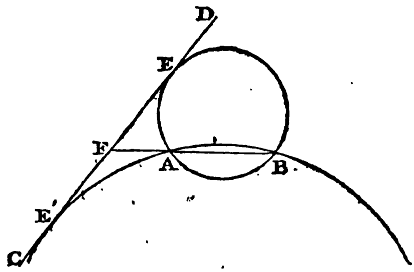
Draw (I. 7. El.) GE bisecting AB at right angles, and (III. 11. cor. El.) through the points, A, E and B describe a circle; this will touch the straight line CD.

For (III. 6. El.) GE must pass through the centre of the circle, and (I. 25. El.) it meets the parallels CD and AB at right angles; whence (III. 28. El.) CD is a tangent to the circle.

2. Let CD be inclined to AB.

ANALYSIS.

Produce BA to meet CD in F. Then (III. 36 El.) $FE^2 = AF.FB$; but the point of concourse F being given, the the rectangle AF, FB is given, and consequently FE and the point E. Wherefore since the three points A, E, and B are given, the circle AEB is given.



COMPOSITION.

Produce BA to meet CD in F, find (VI. 18. El.) FE or FE′ a mean proportional to AF and FB, and (III. 11. cor. El.) through the points A, B, and E or A, B, and E′, describe a circle; this will touch the straight line CD.

For since AF : FE :: FE FB, therefore (V. 6 El.) $FE^2 = AF.FB$, and consequently (III. 38. El.) FE, or FE′, touches the circle.

PROP XXVIII. PROB.

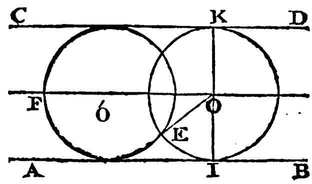
Through a given point, to describe a circle touching two straight lines given in position.

Let it be required, through the point E, to describe a circle touching AB and CD.

1. Suppose AB is parallel to CD.

ANALYSIS.

Through the centre O draw the parallel FO and the common perpendicular KI. It is evident that the radius OI is given, and consequently FO is given in position; but OE, being equal to OI, is given, and therefore the centre O is given.



COMPOSITION.

Draw a parallel FO bisecting the distance between the straight lines AB and CD, and from E with a radius equal to half that distance intersect FO in O, or O′; this point is the centre of the circle required. For OE = OI = OK, and the circle which passes through E must touch at K and I.

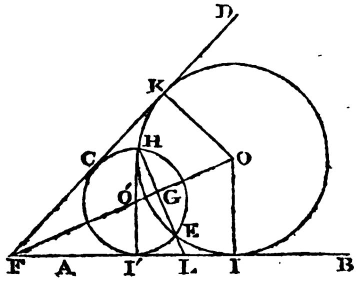
2. Suppose CD is inclined to AB.

ANALYSIS.

Produce BA and DC to meet in F, join OI, OK, and OF, and from E draw EGH perpendicular to OF.

The triangles OKF and OIF, being (III. 28. El.) right-angled, and having the side OK equal to OI and the side

OF common, are (I. 24. El.) equal, and consequently the angle OFK is equal to OFI; wherefore, since the point of concourse F is given, the straight line OF is given, But, the point E being given, the perpendicular EH is thence given, and (III. 5. El.) GH being equal to GE, the opposite point H is given.



Two points E, H, and a straight line AB, are thus given, and therefore, by the last proposition, the circle EHKI is given.

COMPOSITION.

Produce BA and DC to meet in F, draw (I. 5. El.) FO bisecting the angle BFD, from E (I. 6. El.) let fall the perpendicular EG, and extend it both ways, making GH = GE, find (VI. 18. El.) LI, or LI′, a mean proportional to HL and LE, and through the points H, E, I, or H, E, I′, describe a circle; this circle will touch both the straight lines AB and CD.

For the centre of the circle which passes through E and H, must (III. 6. El.) occur in FO; let it be O, join OI and draw the perpendicular OK. Because HL. LE = LI², the circle touches AB at I, and hence OIF is a right angle; consequently the triangles KOF and IOF having the angles OKF and OFK equal to OIF and OFI, and the side OF common, are (I. 23. El) equal, and therefore OI = OK; whence the circle described from O passes through K, and (III. 28. El.) must touch CD at that point.

PROP. XXIX. PROB.

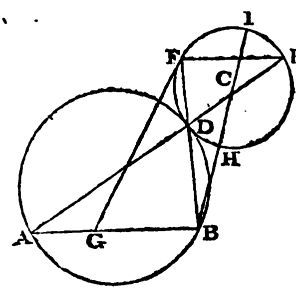
Through two given points, to describe a circle touching a given circle.

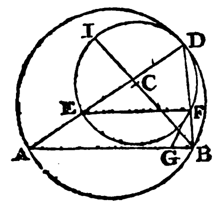
Let it be required, through the points A and B, to describe a circle, touching another circle whose centre is C.

ANALYSIS.

Through D, the point of contact, draw ADE and BDF, join EF, at F (I. 5. cor. 2. El.) apply the tangent FG, and draw BHCI.

Because FG touches the given circle, the angle BFG is (III. 29. El.) equal to FED, and therefore equal to BAD, since (III. 33. El.) FE and AB are parallel; but the triangles BGF and BDA have likewise a common angle at B, and are hence similar; wherefore BF : BG :: BA : BD, and (V. 6. El.) BA . BG = BF . BD = (III. 36. El.) BI . BH. But BI and BH are given, and thence the rectangle BA, BG is given, and consequently (II. 11. El.) the point G is given. Hence the tangent GF, and D, the intersection of BF, are given; wherefore the circle that passes through the three points A, D, and B, is given.





COMPOSITION.

Make (VI. 3. El.) BA : BI : : BH : BG, draw (III. 30. El.) the tangent GF, join BF cutting the given circumference in D, and (III. 11. cor. El.), through the points A, D, and B, describe a circle; this will touch the circle FDE.

For draw ADE, join FE, and draw BHCI. Since BA : BI : : BH : BG, therefore (V. 6. El.) BA. BG = BI. BH = (III. 36. El.) BF. BD; whence BF : BG : : BA : BD, and consequently the triangles BGF and BDA, having the same vertical angle, are (VI. 15. El.) similar, and hence the angle BFG is equal to BAD But (III. 29. El.) BFG is equal to FED, and thus the alternate angles BAE and FEA are equal, and FE is parallel to AB; whence (III. 33. El.) the two circles touch at D.

PROP. XXX. PROB.

Through a given point, to describe a circle, touching a given circle and a straight line which is given in position.

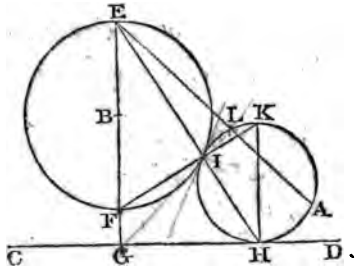
Let it be required, through the point A, to describe a circle touching the straight line CD and the circle whose centre is B.

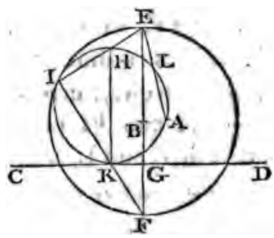
ANALYSIS.

From the centre of the given circle let fall the perpendicular EBG, join EI and extend it to H in the straight line CD, also draw FIK and join HK.

The angle HIK, being equal to EIF which stands in-

a semicircle, is (III. 26. El.) a right angle, and consequently HK is the diameter of the circle ILA, and H the point of contact. The triangles HEG and FEI are therefore similar, HE : EG :: EF : EI, whence HE. EI = EG. EF. Join ELA, and (III. 36. El.) AE.EL=HE.EI=EG EF; but the rectangle EG, GF is given, and consequently AE, EI, and EA being given, the point L is hence given. Wherefore, since the two points A, L, and the straight line CD, are all given,--the circle HIA is given.





COMPOSITION.

Join EA, draw the perpendicular EG, make (VI. 3. El.) AE : EG :: EF : EL, and by prop 27 of this Book, describe a circle through the points A, L, and touching the straight line CD; this circle will also touch the given circle.

For draw the diameter HK, join EH cutting the circumference EIF, and draw FIK meeting HK.

The triangles HEG and FEI being evidently similar, HE EG :: EF : EI, and HE.EI = EG. EF; but AE : EG :: EF : EI, and AE.EL=EG.EF; wherefore HE.EI= AE.EL; and (III 38 El.) the point L must lie in the circumference HIK. But the two circles also touch in L; for EG being parallel to HK, the angles IEF and IHK are equal, which are again equal to those made by a tangent with IF and IK.

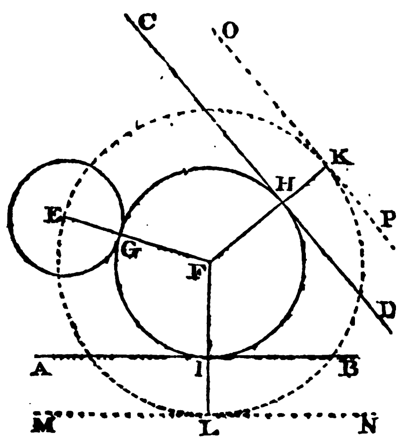
PROP. XXXI. PROB.

To describe a circle that shall touch a given circle and two straight lines given in position.

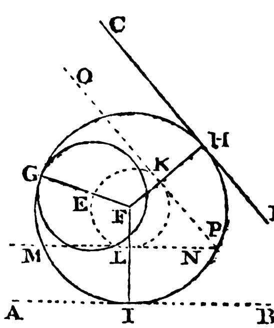
Let it be required, to describe a circle touching the straight lines AB and CD, and another circle whose centre is E.

ANALYSIS.

Join FE, draw FH, FI to the points of contact, from F, with the radius FE, describe a circle meeting FH and FI produced in K and L, and, at these points, apply the tangents MN and OP.



Because FE = FK = FL and FG = FH = FI, therefore GE = HK = IL. But the tangents CD and OP, being perpendicular to FK, are parallel; and, for the same reason, the tangents AB and MN are parallel. Wherefore OP and MN are given in position, and consequently, by Prop. 28. the circle EKL is given; and thence the concentric circle GHI.



COMPOSITION.

At a distance equal to the radius of the given circle, draw MN and OP parallel to AB and CD; and, by Prop. 28. of this Book, find F the centre of a circle which passes through E and touches MN and OP; F is likewise the centre of the required circle.

For join FE, and draw FK and FL to the points of contact. And because GE=HK=IL, it is evident that FG=FH=FI. But the circle also touches at the points H and I, since CD and AB are perpendicular to FK and FL.

Scholium. The five preceding propositions are only cases of a general problem. "Three things being given,—whether points, or straight lines, or circles,—to describe a circle limited by them all." This problem comprizes ten distinct cases. Two of these have been already given in the Elements: To describe a circle through three given points, forms the 11th Prop. Book III: To describe a circle that shall touch three straight lines given in position, is the basis of Prop. 10. Book IV., and appears complete in the construction of Prop. 38. Book VI. Three cases still remain: When there are given two circles and a point—two circles and a straight line—or three circles,—to describe a third circle limited by these data. They are easily reduced, however, to the cases already solved, by drawing parallels, or describing concentric circles, at distances equal to the sum or difference of the given radii.

GEOMETRICAL ANALYSIS.

BOOK III.

DEFINITION.

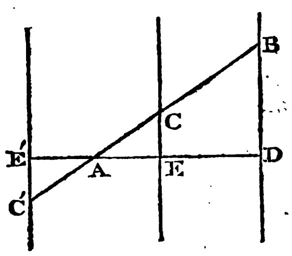
If a point vary its position according to some determined law, it will trace a line which is termed its *Locus*.

PROP. I. THEOR.

If a straight line, drawn through a given point to a straight line given in position, be divided in a given ratio, the *locus* of the point of section is a straight line given in position.

Let the point A and the straight line BD be given in position, and let AB, limited by these, be cut in a given ratio at C; this point will lie in a straight line which is given in position.

ANALYSIS.



From A let fall the perpendicular AD upon BD, and, through C, draw CE parallel to BD. It is evident (VI. 1. El.) that AC : AB :: AE : AD, and consequently that the ratio of AE to AD is given; but AD is given both in position and magnitude, and hence AE and the point E are given, and therefore CE, which stands at right angles to AD, is given in position.

COMPOSITION.

Let fall the perpendicular AD, which divide at E in the given ratio, and erect the perpendicular CE; this straight line is the *locus* required. For CE being parallel to BD, AC : AB : : AE : AD, that is, in the given ratio.

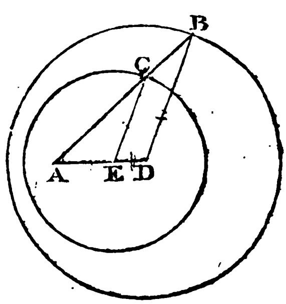
PROP. II. THEOR.

If a straight line, drawn through a given point to the circumference of a given circle, be divided in a given ratio, the *locus* of the point of section will also be the circumference of a given circle.

Let AB, terminating in a given circumference, be cut in a given ratio; the segment AC will likewise terminate in a given circumference.

ANALYSIS.

Join A with D the centre of the given circle, and draw CE parallel to BD. It is obvious (VI. 1. El.) that AC : AB :: AE : AD; whence the ratio of AE to AD being given, AE and the point E are given. Again, since (VI. 2. El.) AC: AB :: CE : BD, the ratio of CE to BD is given, and consequently CE is given in magnitude. Wherefore the one extremity E being given, the other extremity of CE must trace the circumference of a given circle.



COMPOSITION.

Join AD, and divide it at E in the given ratio, and in the same ratio make DB to the radius EC, with which, and from the centre E, describe a circle.

For draw AB cutting both circumferences, and join CE and BD. Because CE : BD :: AE : AD, alternately CE : AE :: BD : AD ; wherefore the triangles CAE and BAD, having likewise a common angle, are similar, and consequently AC : CB :: AE : AD, that is in the given ratio.

PROP. III. THEOR.

If, through a given point, two straight lines be drawn in a given ratio and containing a given angle; if the one terminate in a straight line given in position, the other will also terminate in a straight line given in position.

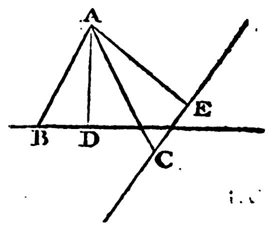
Let the ratio of BA to AC, with the angle BAC and its vertex A, be given; if the extremity B lie in the straight line BD, the extremity C will have for its *locus* another straight line given likewise in position.

ANALYSIS.

Let fall the perpendicular AD upon BD, draw AE forming with AD an angle DAE equal to BAC, and make AB : AC :: AD : AE; CE being joined, is the *locus* required.

Because the angle DAE is, by construction, equal to BAC, it is given; and the perpendicular AD being given, the straight line AE is, therefore, given in position. But AB : AC :: AD : AE, and this being a given ratio, AE is

hence given also in magnitude. Again, since the angle BAC is equal to DAE, the angle BAD is equal to CAE; and because AB : AC :: AD : AE, alternately AB : AD :: AC : AE; wherefore the triangles ABD and ACE, having their vertical angles equal, and the sides containing those angles proportional, are (VI. 15. El.) similar, and consequently the angle CEA is equal to BDA, and therefore a right angle; consequently the straight line EC is given in position.



COMPOSITION.

Having let fall the perpendicular AD, and made the angle DAE equal to BAC, make AD to AE in the given ratio, and, at right angles to AE, draw EC; this is the *locus* required. For the triangles BAD and CAE, having their vertical angles equal, and the angles at D and E right angles, are similar, and consequently AB : AD :: AC : AE, or alternately AB : AC :: AD : AE, that is, in the given ratio.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

If, through a given point, two straight lines be drawn in a given ratio, and containing a given angle; if the one terminate in a given circumference, the other will also terminate in a given circumference.

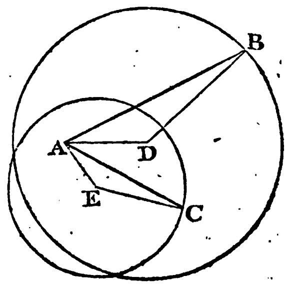
Let the angle BAC, its vertex A, and the ratio of its

sides, be given; if AB be limited by a given circle, the *locus* of C will also be a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Join A with D the centre of the given circle, draw AE at the given angle with AD, and in the given ratio, and join DB and EC.

Because the point A and the centre D are given, the straight line AD is given; and since the angle DAE, being equal to BAC, is given, AE is given in position. But AD being to AE in the given ratio, AE must be given also in magnitude, and consequently the point E is given.



Again, the whole angle BAC being equal to DAE, the part BAD is equal to CAE; and because AB : AC :: AD : AE, alternately AB : AD :: AC : AE; wherefore the triangles ADB and AEC are similar, and hence AB : BD :: AC : AE or alternately AB : AC :: BD : CE; consequently the fourth term CE is given in magnitude; and its extremity E being given, the other must lie in a given circumference.

COMPOSITION.

Having drawn AE at the given angle with AD, make AD to AE in the given ratio, and in the same ratio let DB be made to EC; a circle described from the centre E with the distance EC, is the *locus* required.

For AD : AE : : DB : EC, and alternately AD : DB : : AE : EC; but the angle BAD is equal to CAE, because the whole BAC is equal to DAE; consequently the triangles ABD and ACE are similar, and AB : AD :: AC : AE

or alternately AB : AC : : AD : AE, that is, in the given ratio.

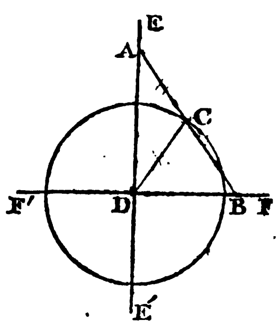
PROP. V. THEOR.

The middle point of a given straight line which is placed between the sides of a right angle, lies in the circumference of a given circle.

Let AB be placed in the right angle EDF, the *locus* of its bisection C is a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Join DC. Then (II. 30. El.) because the base of the triangle ADB is bisected, $AD^2 + DB^2 = 2AC^2 + 2DC^2$; but, since ADB is a right angle, $AD^2 + DB^2 = AB^2$ (II. 14. El.); wherefore $2AC^2 + 2DC^2 = AB^2 = 4AC^2$, and consequently $2DC^2 = 2AC^2$, or $DC = AC$. Now AC, being the half of AB, is given, and therefore DC; whence the locus of the point of bisection C is a circle described from D, with the radius DC.



COMPOSITION.

From D, with a distance equal to half the given line, describe a circle; this is the *locus* required.

For draw the radius DC, make AC = DC and produce

AC to B. Because AC=DC, the angle ADC=DAC (I. 8. El.); but the angles DAC and DBC are together equal to a right angle (I. 34. El), and therefore equal to ADC and BDC; whence the angle DBC is equal to BDC, and consequently (I. 9. El.) the side DC is equal to BC. The segments AC and BC are thus, each of them, equal to DC, and hence AB itself is double of DC, or is equal to the given straight line.

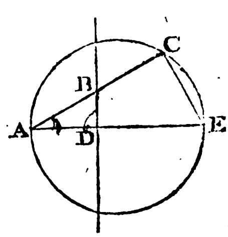
PROP. VI. THEOR.

If a straight line, drawn from a given point to a straight line given in position, contain a given rectangle, the *locus* of its point of section will be a given circle.

Let the rectangle AB, AC be given, while the point B and the straight line BD are given in position; the point C will lie in the circumference of a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Draw AD perpendicular to BD, and make the rectangle AD. AE=AB. AC. Since AD is evidently given both in position and magnitude, AE and the point E are given. Join CE. Because AD×AE=AB×AC, AD:AB :: AC:AE, and the triangles DAB and CAE, having the sides about the common angle at A proportional, are therefore similar; and consequently the angle ACE is equal to ADB, or a right angle. Whence (III. 26. El.) the point E must lie in a semicircle, of which AE, the diameter, is given.



COMPOSITION.

Having drawn the perpendicular AD, make the rectangle AD, AE equal to the given space, and upon the diameter AE describe a circle; this is the *locus* required. For draw AC and CE. The triangles ABD and AEC are similar, since they have a common angle at A, and those at D and C right angles; wherefore AB : AD : : AE : AC, and AB×AC=AD×AE, that is, equal to the given space.

PROP. VII. THEOR.

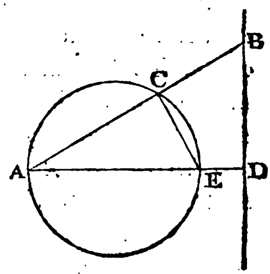
If a straight line, containing a given rectangle, be drawn through a given point to the circumference of a given circle, the *locus* of its point of section will be either a straight line given in position on a given circle, according as it originates, or not, in the given circumference.

Let the rectangle AC, AB be equal to a given space, and the segment AC terminate in a given circumference, the point of origin A may either lie in that circumference or not.

1. Suppose the given point A lies in the given circumference; the *locus* of C is the straight line given in position.

ANALYSIS.

Draw the diameter AE and make AE×AD=AB×AC; wherefore the point D is given, and join CE and BD. Because AE × AD = AB×AC, AC : AE :: AD : AB; whence the triangles CAE and DAB, having likewise a common angle at A, are similar. Consequently the angle ADB being thus equal to ACE, is a right angle, and the straight line DB is hence given in position.



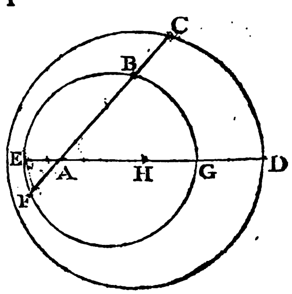
COMPOSITION.

Having drawn the diameter AE, make the rectangle AE, AD equal to the given space, and erect the perpendicular DB; this is the *locus* required. For draw ACB and join CE. The right angled triangles ACE and ADB being evidently similar, AC : AE: : AD : AB, and AC×AB =AE×AD, or the given space.

2. Suppose that the point A does not lie in the given circumference; then the *locus* of B is a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Draw the diameter EAD, and produce CAF to the circumference. The rectangle AC, AF, being equal to AD, AE, is given, and has therefore a given ratio to the rectangle AC, AB; whence the ratio of AF to AB is given, and consequently (III. 2.) AB terminates in the circumference of a given circle.



COMPOSITION.

Having drawn the diameter EAD, make the rectangle AD, AH equal to the given space, and (III. 2.) describe a circle, EBGF, such that a straight line, passing through shall be cut by the circumference in the ratio of AE to AH; this circle is the *locus* required. For AE : AH :: AF:AB : : AF× AC : AB × AC; wherefore AF×AC: AB×AC :: AE×AD : AH×AD, and the first term of this analogy being equal to the third, the second term is equal to the fourth, or AB×AC=AH×AD, that is, equal to the given space.

PROP. VIII. THEOR.

If two straight lines, containing a given rectangle, be drawn from a given point at a given angle; should the one terminate in a straight line given in position, the other will terminate in the circumference of a given circle.

Let the point A, the angle BAC, and the rectangle under its sides, BA, AC, be given; if the direction BD be given, then will the *locus* of C be a given circle.

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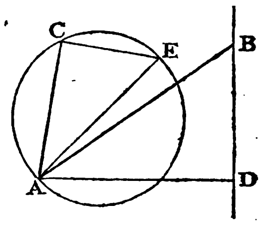
ANALYSIS.



From A let fall the perpendicular AD upon BD. Draw AE, to contain with AD an angle equal to the given angle, and a rectangle equal to the given space; and join CE.

Since AD is evidently given in position and magnitude, AE is likewise given in position and magnitude; and the rectangle AD,AE being equal to AB.AC, therefore AD : AB :: AC : AE; but the angle DAE is equal to BAC, and hence DAB is equal to EAC. Wherefore the triangles ABD and AEC, having each an equal angle and its containing sides proportional, are similar; and consequently the angle ACE is equal to the right angle ADB. Whence the *locus* of C is a circle, having AE for its diameter.

COMPOSITION.

Having let fall the perpendicular AD, draw AE, making the angle DAE equal to the given angle, and the rectangle DA, AE equal to the given space, and on AE, as a diameter, describe a circle; this is the *locus* required.

For join CE; and the triangles DAB and EAC being right angled at D and C, and having the vertical angles at A equal, are evidently similar, and consequently AD : AB :: AC : AE; and hence the rectangle AB, AC is equal to AD, AE, that is, to the given space.

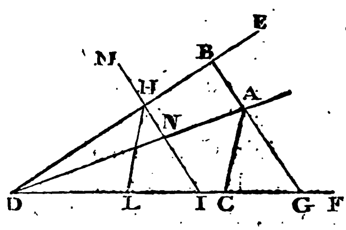
PROP IX. THEOR.

If two straight lines in a given ratio, and containing a given angle, terminate in two diverging lines which are given in position, the *locus* of their vertex will be likewise a straight line given in position.

Let the straight lines AB, AC, in a given ratio, and containing a given angle, be limited by the given diverging lines DE, DF; then will their vertex A lie in a given direction.

ANALYSIS.

Join DA, and produce BA to meet DF in G. The triangle DBG is given in species; for the angles at D and B are given, and, consequently, the angle at G. Again, the triangle ACG is given in species, since all its angles are given. Hence the ratio of AC to AG is given; but the ratio of AB to AC is given, and consequently that of AB to AG and that of BG to AG.



Hence, also, the ratio of BG to DG is given, and therefore the ratio of AG to DG; and the angle at G being given, the triangle DAG is (VI 15. El.) consequently given in species Wherefore the angle GDA is given, and hence the straight line DA is given in position.

COMPOSITION.

In DE take any point H, and draw HI and HL, making with DE and DF angles equal to the respective inclinations of the bounded lines, produce IH to M, so that MH shall have to HL the given ratio, find IN a third proportional to IM, IH, and join DNA; this straight line is the *locus* required.

Because IM : IH :: IH : IN, therefore (V. 11. and 7. El.) MH : IM :: NH : IH; but (VI. 2. El.) AB : AG :: HN : IH, and the triangles ACG and HLI being evidently similar, AG : AC :: IH : HL; therefore (V. 16. El.) AB : AC :: MH : HL, that is, in the given ratio.

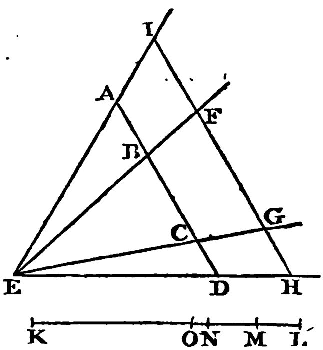
PROP. X. THEOR.

Three diverging lines being given in position, if a straight line cut them at given angles, and such that the rectangle of its first segment, by a given line, shall be equal to both the rectangles of its second and third segments by given lines; the *locus* of its point of origin will be a straight line given in position.

Let ABCD cut the diverging lines EF, EG and EH at given angles, and let AB.KL=AC.ML+AD.NM; then will the *locus* of the point A be a straight line given in position.

ANALYSIS.

Because AC.ML = AB.ML + BC.ML, and AD.NM = AB.NM + BD.NM, therefore AB. KL = AB. ML + BC.ML + AB.NM + BD.NM, and consequently AB.KL = AB(ML + NM) + BC.ML + BD. NM, and AB. KN = BC.ML + BD.NM. Make BC : BD :: NM : MO, and BC.MO = BD.NM; whence AB.KN = BC(ML + MO) = BC . OL, and AB : BC :: OL : KN. The ratio of AB to BC is, therefore, given; but the triangle BCE being given in species, the ratio of BE to BC is given, and consequently the ratio of AB to BE is given; and since the contained angle ABE is given, the triangle BEA is likewise given in species; and thence the point A, and the straight line EA, are given in position.



COMPOSITION.

Having assumed in EH any point H, draw HGF in the given inclination, make FG : GH :: NM : MO, and produce HF till KN : OL :: FG : IF; EI is the straight line required. For BC : AB :: FG : IF :: KN : OL, and AB.KN = BC.OL; but BC : CD :: FG : GH :: NM : MO, and BC. MO = CD. NM. Wherefore AB. KN = BC. OL = BC.ML + CD.NM, and AB.KM = AB.NM + BC.ML + CD. NM = BC. ML + AD. NM, and hence AB. KL = AB. ML + BC. ML + AD. NM = AC. ML + AD. NM.

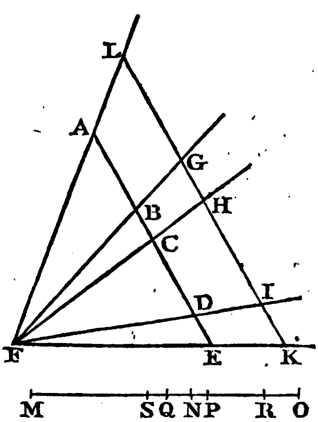
PROP. XI. THEOR.

Four diverging lines being given in position, if a straight line cut them at given angles, and such that the rectangles of its first and second segments by given lines shall be equal to both the rectangles of its third four segments by given lines; the *locus* of its point of origin will be a straight line given in position.

Let ABCDE cut the diverging lines FG, FH, FI, and FK at given angles, and let AB.MN + AC.NO = AD.OP + AE.PQ; then will the *locus* of the point A be a straight line given in position.

ANALYSIS.

Because AB.MN+AC.NO=AD.OP+AE.PQ, it follows, by decomposition, that AB.MO+BC.NO±AB.OQ +BD.OP+BE.PQ, and consequently AB.MQ + BC.NO = BD.OP + BE.PQ. Make BD : BC :: NO : OR, and BD : BE : : PQ : PS; then BD.OR=BC.NO, and BD.PS =BE.PQ; whence AB.MQ + BD. OR = BD. OP + BD.PS, or AB.MQ=BD.SR, and, therefore, AB : BD :: SR : MQ. But the triangle BDF being given in species, the ratio of BD to BF is given; and consequently the ratio of AB to BF is given, and the contained angle ABF being

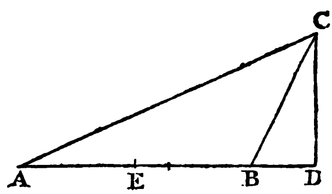


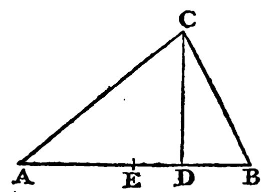
PROP. XIII. THEOR.

If from two given points there be inflected two straight lines, of whose squares the difference is given, the *locus* of their point of concourse will be a straight line given in position.

Let AC and BC, drawn from the points A and B, have the difference of their squares given; the *locus* of C, the point of concourse, is a straight line given in position.

ANALYSIS.





Draw CD perpendicular to AB, which bisect in E. The difference between the squares of AC and BC is (II. 29. El.) equal to twice the rectangle under AB and ED; consequently that rectangle, and its containing side ED, are given; whence the point of bisection E being given, the point D is given, and the perpendicular CD is therefore given in position.

COMPOSITION.

Bisect AB in E, and make (II. 11. El.) the rectangle under 2 AB and ED equal to the given space; the perpendicular DC is the *locus* required.

For (II. 29. El.) $AC^2 - BC^2 = AB.\,2ED = 2AB.\,ED$, and consequently the difference of the squares of AC and BC is equal to the given space.

PROP. XIV. THEOR.

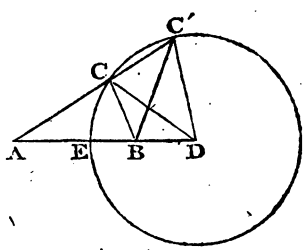
If from two given points there be inflected two straight lines in a given unequal ratio, the *locus* of their point of concourse is a given circle.

If the inflected lines be equal, their vertices will (I. 2. El.) lie in a straight line bisecting the base at right angles.

Let AC and BC, drawn from the points A and B, have a given ratio, but not that of equality; then will C, the point of concourse, lie in the circumference of a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Draw CD, making the angle BCD equal to BAC, and meeting AB produced in D. The triangles DAC and DCB, having the angle at D common, and the angles at A and C equal, are evidently similar; and hence AD : AC : : CD : CB, and alternately AD : CD : : AC : CB, that is in the given ratio. But AD : CD :: CD : BD, and consequently AD is to BD in the duplicate of the given ratio of AD to CD, and which is, therefore, likewise given. Consequently BD, and the point D, are given; and CD being thence given, its extremity C must lie in the circumference of a circle described with that radius.



COMPOSITION.

Divide AB in the given ratio at E, and in the same ratio make ED to BD; the circle described from the centre D, and with the radius DE, is the *locus* required.

For, since AE : EB : : ED : BD, it follows (V. 19. El.) that AD : ED, or CD : : ED, or CD : BD; hence the triangles DAC and DCB, thus having the sides which contain their common angle at D proportional, are similar, and therefore AC : AD : : BC : CD, or alternately AC : BC : : AB : CD, or ED, that is, in the given ratio.

PROP. XV. THEOR.

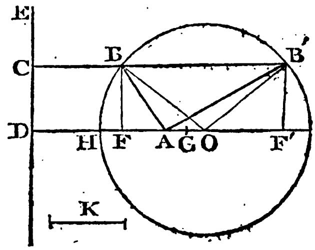
A point and a straight line being given in position, the *locus* of another point, the square of whose distance from the former, is equal to the rectangle under its distance from the latter and a given straight line—is a given circle.

The point A and the straight line DE being given in position, let the square of BA be equal to the rectangle under the perpendicular BC, and K; the *locus* of B is a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Draw DFA parallel to CB, make AO equal to the half of K, and bisect it in G, join BO, and let fall the perpendicular BF.

Because AO is bisected in G, $OB^2—AB^2$ or, $AB'^2—OB^2$ (III. 29. El.)$=2\,AO \times GF = K \times GF$; but $AB^2 = K \times BC$, or $K \times DF$, and hence $OB^2 = K \times DG$. Since therefore DG is given, OB is also given; and the one extremity O being given, the other extremity B must lie in the circumference of a given circle.



COMPOSITION.

Having drawn DAB parallel to CB, make $AO = \frac{1}{2}K$, and $AG = \frac{1}{2}AO$, and find OH a mean proportional between K and DG; a circle described from O with the radius OH, is the *locus* required.

For $OB^2—AB^2$, or $AB^2—OB'^2$, $=2\,AO \times GF = K \times GF$; and since, by construction, OH^2, or OB^2, $= K \times DG$, it follows that $AB^2 = K \times DF$, or $K \times BC$.

PROP. XVI. THEOR.

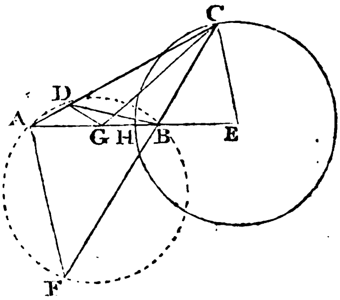
If, from two given points, there be inflected two straight lines, such that the difference of the square of the one and a given space, shall have to the square of the other, a given unequal ratio—their point of concourse will lie in the circumference of a given circle.

Let AC and BC be the inflected lines, and the rectangle

AC, AD be made equal to the given space; then if the difference between the square of AC and that rectangle, or the remaining rectangle AC, CD, have a given unequal ratio to the square of BC, the *locus* of the point C will be a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Make (VI. 4. El.) AE to BE in the given ratio, join CE and BD, produce CB to meet the circumference of a circle described about the triangle ADB, and join AF.



Because (III. 36. El.) the rectangle AC, CD is equal to FC, BC, it follows that the rectangle FC, BC is to the square of BC, or (V. 24. cor. 2. El.) FC is to BC, in the given ratio of AE to BE; wherefore (VI. 1. cor. 1. El.) AF is parallel to CE, and consequently the angle ECB is equal to AFB, which is equal to CDB the opposite exterior angle of the quadrilateral figure ADBF. Through the point, C, D, B, describe a circle cutting AB in G, and join CG and DG; then (III. 36. El.) the rectangle BA, AG is equal to CA, AD, or to the given space, and hence AG, and the point G are given. The angle CDB, or ECB, is, therefore, equal to CGB, and consequently the triangles BEC and CEG are similar, and GE : CE : : CE : BE; whence $CE = GE \times BE$, which is a given rectangle, and thus CE is given, and the *locus* of C a given circle.

COMPOSITION.

Make the rectangle AB, AG equal to the given space and AE to BE in the given ratio, and find EH a mean proportional between GE and BE; the *locus* required is a circle described from E with the radius EH.

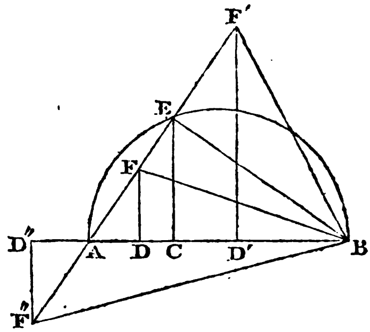
For, through the points A, D, B, and through C, B, G, describe circles, produce CB to F, and join AF, CG, and DG. Because $GE.BE = HE^2$, GE : HE, or CE : : HE, or CE : BE, and, therefore, the triangles GEC and CEB are similar, and the angle EGC is equal to ECB; but the angle EGC, or BGC, is equal to CDB, which again is equal to AFB; consequently the alternate angles ECB and AFB are equal, and the straight lines CE and AF parallel. Wherefore AE : BE :: FC : BC :: FC.BC, or AC.CD : BC^2. But CA.AD=BA.AG, or the given space; and hence the difference between the square of AC and that space, or the rectangle AC,CD, is to the square of BC, in the given ratio.

LEMMA.

If a straight line AB be cut anyhow in the point C, but divided at C, so that the segment AC shall be the nth part of BC; then $n.AD^2+BD^2=AB.BC+(n+1)CD^2$.

For upon AB describe a semicircle, and erect the perpendicular CE, join AE, BE, draw DF parallel to CE and meeting AE or its extension, and join BF.

The angle AEB in a semicircle being a right angle, $AC : CE :: CE : BC$ (VI. 17. cor. El.) and consequently (V. 23. El.) $AC : BC :: AC^2 : CE^2$; but $BC = n.AC$, and therefore $CE^2 = n.AC^2$. —Again, $AB : AE :: AE : AC$, and $AB : AC :: AE^2 : AC^2$; and since $AB = (n+1) AC$; it follows (V. 5. Elem.) that $AE^2 = (n+1) AC^2$ Now CE and DF being parallel, $CE : DF :: AC : AD$, and (V. 21. cor. 1. El.) $CE^2 : DF^2 :: AC^2 AD^2$ and CE^2 being equal to $n.AC^2$, therefore (V. 8. and 5. El.) $DF^2 = n.AD^2$. In the same manner, it is shown that $EF^2 = (n+1) CD^2$. But (VI. 17. cor. 1. El.) $BE^2 = AB.BC$, and the triangles BDF and BEF being right angled, $BD^2 + DF^2 = BF^2 = BE^2 + EF^2$, and consequently by substitution, $n.AD^2 + BD^2 = AB.BC + (n+1) CD^2$.



PROP. XVII. THEOR.

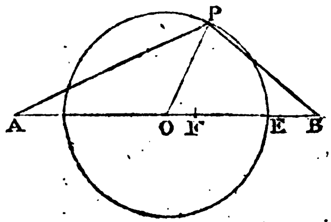
If, from given points, there be inflected straight lines, whose squares are together equal to a given space,—their point of concourse will terminate in the circumference of a given circle.

1. When there are only two given points.

Let AP and BP, drawn from the points A and B, have the sum of their squares given; the *locus* of their point of concourse is a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Bisect AB in O, and join OP. The squares of AP and BP are (II. 30. El.) equal to twice the squares of AO and OP. Hence the sum of the squares of AO and OP is given; but AO and its square being given, the square of OP and OP itself, must be given; wherefore the *locus* of the extremity P is a circle, of which the point of bisection is the centre.



COMPOSITION.

Bisect AB in O, find (III. 37. El.) AF the side of a square equal to half the given space, and make (II. 17. El.) $OE^2 = AF^2 - AO^2$; the point O is the centre, and OP the radius, of the required circle.

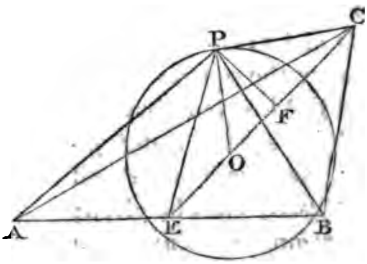
For (II. 30. El.) $AP^2 + BP^2 = 2AO^2 + 2OP^2 = 2AO^2 + 2OE^2 = 2AF^2$, or the given space.

2. When three points are given.

Let the straight lines AP, BP and CP, inflected from the points A, B, and C, have the sum of their squares given; the *locus* of their point of concourse is a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Bisect AB in E, and (II. 30. El.) $AP^2 + BP^2 = 2AE^2 + 2EP^2$; consequently $AP^2 + BP^2 + CP^2 = 2AE^2 + 2EP^2 + CP^2$. Now $2AE^2 = AB.BE$, and letting fall the perpendicular PF, (II. 14. El.) $2EP^2 = 2EF^2 + 2PF^2$, and $CP^2 = PF^2 + CF^2$. Wherefore $AP^2 + BP^2 + CP^2 = AB.BE + 3PF^2 + 2EF^2 + CF^2$.



Trisect EC (I. 40. El.) in the point O, and join PO; and, by the *Lemma*, $2EF^2 + CF^2 = EC.CO + 3OF^2$. Whence $AP^2 + BP^2 + CP^2 = AB.BE + EC.CO + 3PF^2 + 3OF^2 = AB.BE + EC.CO + 3PO^2$. But the intermediate points of division E and O, are evidently given, and thence the rectangles AB, BE and EC, CO, are given; wherefore $3PO^2$ is given, and consequently PO itself. Since one extremity of that line then is given, the other extremity P must lie in the circumference of a given circle.

COMPOSITION.

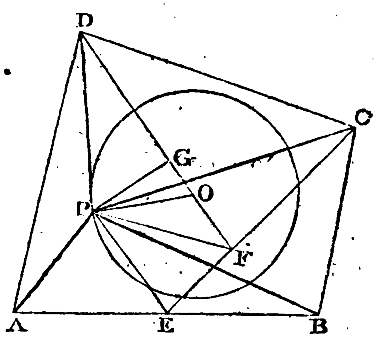
Bisect AB in E, trisect EC in O, and find (III. 37. El.) OP such that its square shall be triple the excess of the given space above the rectangles AB, BE and EC, CO; the *locus* required is a circle, of which O is the centre, and DP the radius. For $3PO^2 = 3PF^2 + 3OF^2$, $3PO^2 + EC.CO = 3PF^2 + EC.CO + 3OF^2 = 3PF^2 + 2EF^2 + CF^2 = 2PE^2 + PF^2 + CF^2 = 2PE^2 + CP^2$; consequently the given space, or $3PO^2 + AB.BE + EC.CO = 2AE^2 + 2PE^2 + CP^2 = AP^2 + BP^2 + CP^2$.

3. When there are four given points.

Let AP, BP, CP and DP drawn from the points A, B, C, and D, have the sum of their squares given; the *locus* of their concourse P is a given circle.

ANALYSIS.

Bisect AB in E, trisect EC in F, and join PE and PF. It is manifest, from the last case, that $AP^2+BP^2+CP^2 = AB.BE + EC.CF + 3PF^2$; add DP^2 to each, and $AP^2 + BP^2 + CP^2 + DP^2 = AB.BE + EC.CF + 3PF^2 + DP^2$. Let fall the perpendicular PG upon DF, and the given space is equal to $AB.BE + EC.CF + 3PG^2 + 3FG^2 + PG^2 + DG^2$; and hence $4PG^2 + 3FG^2 + DG^2$ must be equal to a given space. Let FO be made the fourth part of DF, and join PO: then, by the *Lemma*, $3FG^2+DG^2 = FD.DO + 4OG^2$. Wherefore $FD.DO + 4OG^2 + 4PG^2$, or $FD.DO + 4PO^2$, is equal to a given space, and hence $4PO^2$, and PO itself, are given. Now the point O being given, P must lie in the circumference of a given circle.



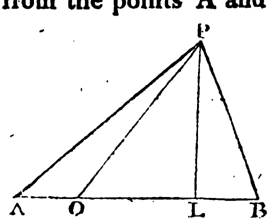
COMPOSITION.

Bisect AB in E, trisect EC in F, and quadrisect FD in O; from the given space take away the accumulate rectangles $AB.BE + EC.CF + FD.DO$, and find (III. 37. El.) the side of a square equal to this difference: That straight line is the diameter of a circle, which is the *locus* required.

For join PE, PF, PO, and let fall the perpendicular PG upon DF; then $FD.DO + 4PO^2 = FD.DO + 4OG^2 + 4PG^2 = 3FG^2 + DG^2 + 4PC^2 = 3FG^2 + 3PG^2 + DP^2 = 3PF^2 + DP^2$. Wherefore $AB.BE + EC.CF + 3PF^2 + DP^2$, is equal to the given space. But, from the composition of the last case, it is manifest that $AP^2 + BP^2 + CP^2 = AB.BE + EC.CF + 3PF^2$; consequently $AP^2 + BP^2 + CP^2 + DP^2$ are together equal to the given space.

By pursuing this mode of investigation, it is obvious that the proposition will be successively extended to any number of given points.

Scholium. The property now demonstrated is capable of being generalized. Thus, if any multiples of the squares of the inflected lines, be together equal to a given space, the *locus* of their point of concourse is still a given circle: For, conceive so many points to be collected at each centre of inflection, and the squares of the lines which proceed from them will in effect evidently receive a corresponding multiplication.—But the property may be traced out more clearly, and through all its shadings, by help of a simple extension of the *Lemma*. Let AP and BP be two straight lines inflected from the points A and B, and let the segment $OB = v.OA$; then, joining PO and drawing the perpendicular OPL, it was proved that $v.AL^2 + BL^2 = AB.BO + (v+1)OL^2$; add $(v+1)PL^2$ to each, and $v(AL^2+PL^2) + BL^2 + PL^2 = AB.BO + (v+1)OL^2 + PL^2)$, or $v.AP^2 + BP^2 = AB.BO + (v+1)OP^2$. Multiply both by m, and suppose $nv = m$, and there results $m.AP^2 + n.BP^2 = n.AB.BO + (m+n)OP^2$. By repeated application of this principle, it may be de-



monstrated that $m.AP^2 + n.BP^2 + p.CP^2 + q.DP^2$, &c. $= (m + n + p + q$, &c.$)\ OP^2$, together with certain multiples of given rectangles, and consequently that their point of concourse has for its *locus* a circle, whose centre is O and radius OP. But the property must likewise hold, if all those multiple squares were divided by the same number, that is, if instead of the squares of the inflected lines, there were substituted only similar rectilineal figures constructed upon them.

DEFINITION.

A *Porism* proposes to demonstrate that one or more things may be found, between which and innumerable other objects assumed after some given law, a certain specified relation is to be shown to exist.

The nature of a porism consists in affirming the possibility of finding such conditions, as will render a problem indeterminate, or capable of innumerable solutions.

PROP. XVIII. PORISM.

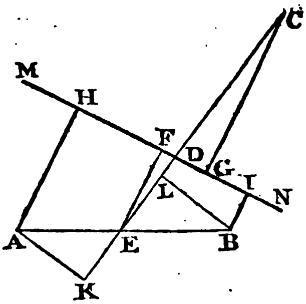
Three points being given, a fourth may be found, such that any straight line drawn through it shall have its distances from two of those equal to its distance from the third.

Let A, B, and C be given points, another point D may be found, so that, HDI being drawn through it, the perpendiculars AH and BI, let fall on the one side, shall be equal to CG on the other.

ANALYSIS.

Through the point D, draw CDK, and upon this let fall the perpendiculars AK, BL, and join AB, meeting AB in E.

Since CDK passes through C, its distances KA and LB on either side, from the two remaining points, must evidently be equal. Hence (I. 23. El.) the right-angled triangles AEK and BEL are equal, and consequently the side AE is equal to BE; wherefore E, being thus the point of bisection, is given. Draw the perpendicular EF; and it is evident (II. 13. El.) that 2EF=AH and BI. Now CG and EF being parallel,



CD : DE :: CG : EF, and (V. 13. El.) CD : 2DE :: CG : 2FE, or AH + BI; but, by hypothesis, CG = AH + BI, and therefore (V. 4. El.) CD=2DE. Whence, CE being given, the point D is given.

COMPOSITION.

Bisect AB in E, join CE and trisect it in D; this is the point required.

For let fall the perpendicular EF. Because CG and EF are parallel, CD : DE :: CG : EF; but CD = 2DE, and therefore (V. 4. El.) CG=2EF, that is, AH + BI.

The porism now demonstrated may be viewed as originating in the solution of this problem :—To draw, through the point M, a straight line MN, such that the perpendi-

cu.ars AH and BI, let fall upon it from the points A and B, shall be together equal to the perpendicular CG, from the point C on the other side. The point D is found as before, and thence the position of MDN is assigned. But this straight line, it is evident, will become indeterminate if the point M should happen to coincide with D; on that supposition, the problem would admit of innumerable answers, or the diameter MDN might lie in every possible direction.

PROP. XIX. PORISM.

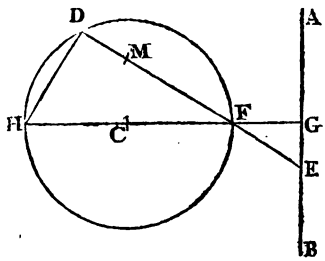
A circle and a straight line being given in position, a point may be found, such that any straight line, drawn through it and limited by these, shall contain a given rectangle.

Let the straight line AB, and the circle HDF, be given in position; it is required to determine a point F, which may divide any connecting straight line DFE into segments containing a rectangle that will be given.

ANALYSIS.

Through F draw HFG perpendicular to AB. By hypothesis, the rectangle HF.FG is likewise equal to the given space, and therefore equal to DF. FE; whence (V. 6. El.)

DF : HF : : FG : FE, and the triangles DFH and GFE, having the vertical angles at F equal, are consequently similar, and the angle FDH is thus equal to FGE, or is a right angle. Wherefore HDF is a semicircle, of which AF is the diameter; but the centre C being given, the perpendicular HCG is thence given, and consequently the extremity of the diameter, or the point F. Again, the points H, F, and G being given, the rectangle under the segments HF and FG is given.



COMPOSITION.

From the centre C, let fall upon AB the perpendicular HCFG, cutting the circumference in F; this point has the property, that any intersecting line drawn through it will contain a given rectangle. For join DH, and the triangles FGE and FDH are similar; whence FG : FE : FD : FH, and consequently FE.FD = FG.FH, which is manifestly given.

This porism also may be considered as arising out of the solution of a simple problem:—Through the point M, to draw a straight line DMFE, so that its segments DF and FE shall contain a given rectangle. The point F being found as before, DME is consequently given in position. But when the point M coalesces with F, the straight line DE can thus have no determinate position, or it will fulfil the conditions of the problem in whatever direction it be drawn.

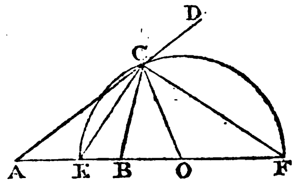
PROP. XX. PORISM.

A circle and a point being given, another point may be found, such that straight lines drawn from them to any point in the circumference, shall have a ratio which will be given.

The point B may be found, so that AC and BC, inflected to the given circumference ECF, shall have a ratio which may be likewise assigned.

ANALYSIS.

Draw AB, cutting the circle in E and F; join CE, CF, and produce AC. Because E, F are points in the circumference, AC : BC : : AE : EB, and AC : BC : : AF : FB; whence (VI. 11. cor. El.) CE bisects the vertical angle ACB, and CF the adjacent angle BCD; consequently the angle ECF, being the half of both of these, is a right angle, and (III. 26. El.) ECF, a semicircle. Wherefore AF, thus passing through the centre O, is given in position. Now, since AF : FB : : AE : EB, alternately AF : AE : : FB : EB; hence EF, being cut externally and internally in the same ratio, EO is (VI. 7. El.) a mean proportional between AO and BO, or $EO^2 = AO.BO$. But AO and EO are given, and therefore BO and the point B are given.



Again, because AO : EO :: EO : BO, by division and alternation, AE : EB :: EO : BO; that is, the inflected lines have the given ratio of EO to BO.

COMPOSITION.

Draw AF through the centre of the given circle, and make AO : EO :: EO : BO; B is the point required. For join CO. Because EO is equal to CO, therefore AO : CO :: CO : BO; consequently the triangles ACO and CBO, having besides the common angle at O, are similar, and AC : AO :: BC : CO, or alternately AC : BC :: AO : CO, that is, in a given ratio.

The porism now demonstrated is evidently derived from the local theorem, which forms the 14th Proposition of this Book.

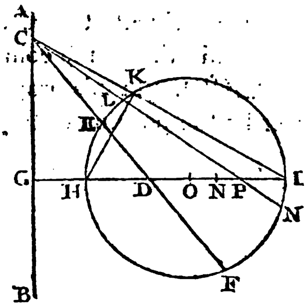
PROP. XXI. PORISM.

A circle and a straight line being given in position, a point may be found, such that any straight line drawn from it to the given line, shall be a mean proportional between the segments intercepted by the given circumference.

Let the straight line AB, and the circle HKF be given in position; it is possible to assign a point D, through which a straight line FDC being drawn, CD shall be a mean proportional between the segments CE and CF.

ANALYSIS.

From D let fall upon AB the perpendicular IDG, and join CI and HK. Because CE : CD :: CD : CF, $CD^2 = CE.CF =$ (III. 36. El.) CK.CI; and, since GI passes through the point D, GH : GD :: GD : GI, and $GD^2 = GH.GI$. But (II. 14. El.) $CD^2 = CG^2 + GD^2$, and consequently $CK.CI = CG^2 + GH.GI$; take these away from $CI^2 = CG^2 + GI^2$, and there remains $CI.KI = GI.HI$. Whence CI : GI :: HI : KI, and consequently the triangles CIG and HIK, having a common vertical angle, are similar. Wherefore



the angle HKI, being thus equal to CGI, stands in a semicircle, of which HI is the diameter; consequently GI is given in position, and the points G, H, and I being thence given, the rectangle under GH and GI, or the square of GD, is given, and therefore the point D.

COMPOSITION.

Through the centre O, draw the perpendicular GOI; and find (III. 18. El.) GD a mean proportional to GH and GI; D is the point required. For (V. 6. El.) $GD^2 = GH.GI$, and (III. 39. El.) $CE.CF = CG^2 + GH.GI = CG^2 + GD^2 = CD^2$.

This porism may be supposed to derive its origin from the problem :—" Through a given point P, in the diameter of a circle, to draw a straight line CLPM to the perpendicular AB, so that the rectangle under the segments

CL and CM shall be equal to the square of GN." Since (III. 39. El.) $CL.CM=CG^2+GH.GI=CG^2+GD^2=CD^2$, it follows that $CD=GN$; wherefore the point D being given, the point C is also given, and consequently the straight line CLPM. The problem is solved, then, by making $GD^2=GH.GI$, and describing, from D with the radius GN, a circle to intersect the perpendicular in C. It is hence evident, that C is independent of the point P. Let CLM, therefore, coincide with CEF, and $CE.CF=GN^2=CD^2$, But this property must likewise obtain, whatever be the position of the point C.

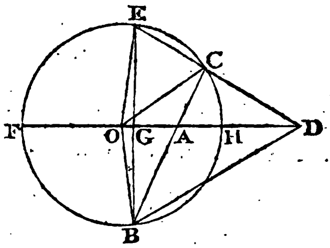
PROP XXII. PORISM.

A point being given in the diameter of a given circle, another point in the same extension may be found, such that the angle contained by two straight lines drawn from it to the extremities of a chord passing through the given point, shall be bisected by the diameter.

In the diameter FH of a given circle, let A be a given point through which any chord BAC is drawn; a point D may be found in the extension of the diameter, so that DC and DB being joined, the angle ADC shall be equal to ADB.

ANALYSIS.

Join EB, and draw EO and BO to the centre O. The triangles EOD and BOD, having the side EO equal to BO, OD common, and the angle ODE equal to ODB, and being likewise of the same affection, since the angles DEO and DBO are evidently both acute—are (I. 24. El.) equal, and consequently the angle EOG is equal to BOG. Whence the triangles OEG and OBG are (I. 3. El.) also equal, and therefore EB is perpendicular to the diameter FH. Wherefore (VI. 9. El.) FA : AH :: FD : DH; but the ratio of FA to AH being given, and consequently that of FD to DH, the point D (VI. 6. El.) is given.



COMPOSITION.

Make (VI. 3. El.) OA : OH :: OH : OD, and then D is the point required. For join OC and OB. Because OH = OC, OA : OC :: OC : OD; wherefore the triangles AOC and COD, having thus the sides about their common angle DOC proportional, are similar; and hence the angle OCA is equal to ODC. In the same manner, it is proved that the angle OBA is equal to ODB. But BOC being an isosceles triangle, the angle OCA is equal to OBA; whence the angle ODC is equal to ODB.

This porism is likewise derived from the local theorem given in Prop. 14. For AC, DC, and AB, DB being inflected in the same ratio, AC : AB :: DC : DB; and consequently (VI. 11. cor. El.) the angle BDC is bisected by DA.

PROP. XXIII. PORISM.

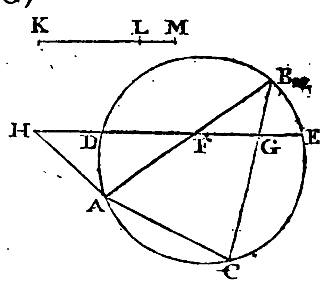
A point being given in the circumference of a circle, another point may be found, so that two straight lines inflected from them to the opposite circumference, shall cut off, on a given chord, extreme segments, whose alternate rectangles shall have a given ratio.

Let the circle ADBE, the point A, and the chord DE, be given in position,—another point C may be found, such that straight lines AB and CB inflected to the opposite circumference, shall form segments containing rectangles DG, FE, and DF, GE, in the ratio of KM to LM.

ANALYSIS.

Join CA, and produce it to meet the extension of the chord ED in H.

Because KM : LM : : DG. FE : DF. GE, by division KL : LM : : DG. FE — DF.GE : DF.GE; but DG.FE — DF.GE = (DF + FG) (GE + FG) — DF. GE = FG.DE, and consequently KL : LM : : FG. DE : DF. GE. Make KL : LM : : DE : DH, then KL: LM : : FG.DE : FG.DH; whence FG. DH = DF. GE, and, adding DF.FG to both, FH.FG = DF.FE = (III. 36. El.) AF.FB. Wherefore FH : FB :: AF : FG, and (VI.



15. El.) the triangles AFH and GFB are similar, and consequently the angle AHF is equal to FBG; but the angle AHF is given, since the points A, H, and D are given, and, therefore, the chord AC, cutting off from the given circumference, a segment that contains a given angle ABC or FBG is given, and thence the point C.

COMPOSITION.

Produce the chord ED to H in the ratio of KM to LM, join HA, and, at any point B in the circumference, make the angle ABC equal to AHF; C is the point required.

For, the triangles AFH and GFB being evidently similar, FH : FB :: AF : FG, and FH.FG=FB.AF=DF.FE; whence FH.FG—DF.FG = DF.FE—DF.FG, or FG×DH = DF × GE. But KL : LM :: DE : DH :: FG × DE : FG×DH, and therefore KL : LM :: FG×DE : DF×GE; consequently (V. 9. El.) KM : LM :: FG×DE+ DF×GE, or DG×FE : DF×GE.

The porism now investigated arises naturally out of this problem :—" From two given points A and C, one of which lies in a given circumference, to inflect straight lines AB and CB, so as to intercept on the chord DE segments that contain rectangles DG, FE and DF, GE, which are in a given ratio." For, the point H being assumed as before, the analysis requires that the angle ABC should be made equal to AHF. Whence, if on AC, a segment of a circle were described containing that angle, its contact or intersection with the given circumference, would determine the point of inflection. Supposing, therefore, the two circles entirely to coincide, the problem will in that case become indeterminate, or admit of innumerable answers.

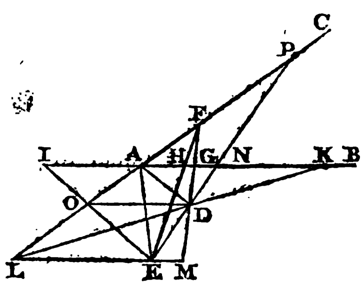
PROP. XXIV. PORISM.

Two points and two diverging lines being given in position, straight lines, inflected from those points to one of the diverging lines, intercept segments, on the other, from points that may be found, and containing a rectangle which will be likewise assignable.

Let DF and EF be inflected, from the points D and E, to the diverging line AC; they will cut off segments, on AB, from points I and K which may be found, so that the rectangle IH, GK shall be given.

ANALYSIS.

Join EI and EA, DA and DK, and produce ED to meet AC in P. Since A, F, and P are so many points of inflection, it is evident, from the hypothesis, that IA.AK=IH.GK =IN.NK; whence IH : IA :: AK : GK, and, by division, AH : IA :: AG : GK, and alternately AH : AG :: IA : GK. Through E, draw LEM parallel to AB and meeting AC and FD produced; then (VI. 2. El.) LE : LM :: AH : AG :: IA : GK. Again, because IA.AK = IN.NK,



IN : IA :: AK : NK, by division AN : IA :: AN : NK, and consequently IA=NK. Wherefore, by substitution, LE : LM :: NK : GK, and LE : EM :: NK : GN, or alternately

LE : NK :: EM : GM, that is, (VI. 2. El.) ED : DN; hence (VI. 16. El.) the triangles LDE and KDN are similar, and LDK forms one single straight line. Join DO. Since IA = NK, LE : IA :: LE : NK, that is (VI. 2. El.) EO : OI :: ED : DN, and therefore (VI. 1. cor. 1. El.) DO is parallel to AB. But the parallels OD and LM being given in position, the points O and L, and thence I and K, are given, and consequently the rectangle IA, AK is given.

COMPOSITION.

Draw DO, EL parallel to AB and meeting the extension of AC, join EO, LD, and produce them to meet AB in I and K; these are the points required. For DF and EF being inflected, LE : IA :: OE : OI :: ED : DN :: DM : DG :: LM : GK, and alternately LE : LM :: IA : GK; but LE : LM :: AH : HG, and therefore IA : GK :: AH : AG; consequently (V. 8. and 11. El.) IA : IH :: GK : AK, and IA.AK = IH.GK.

The porism thus investigated follows from this problem: "Two straight lines AB and AC being given in position, with the points I and K, E and D, to find a point F, such that the inflected lines EF and DF shall intercept segments IH and GK, containing a given space:" For, when the points I and K have the position before assigned, the construction becomes indeterminate.

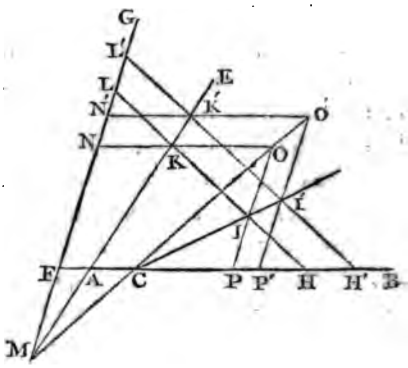
PROP. XXV. PORISM.

Three diverging lines being given in position, a fourth may be found, such that straight lines can be drawn intersecting all these and divided by them into proportional segments.

Let AB, CD, and AE be given diverging lines, and HIKL any transverse line cut by them in given ratios; a fourth diverging line FG may be found limiting the segment KL.

ANALYSIS.

Produce EA and GF to meet in M, through K and P draw NO and PO parallel to AB and FG, and meeting in O, join CO; let H′I′K′L′ be another transverse line divided into proportional segments, draw P′I′O′ parallel to PIO and meeting CO in O′, and join O′K′ and produce it to N′.



Because KO is parallel to PH, HI : IK :: PI : IO; and, since the parallels PO and P′O are cut by the diverging lines CP, CI, and CO, PI : IO : : P′I′ : I′O′; consequently H′I′ : I′K′ : : P′I′ : I′O′, and O′N′ is parallel to ON. Again, IK : KL :: OK : KN and I′K′ : K′L′ :: O′K′ : K′N′; wherefore OK : KN :: O′K′ : K′N′; and hence the straight lines OC, EA, and GF all converge to the same point N. Now CA : AF : : OK : KN :: IK : KL; whence the ratio of CA to AF being given, AF and the point F are given; but the point L is given, and, therefore, FLG is given in position.

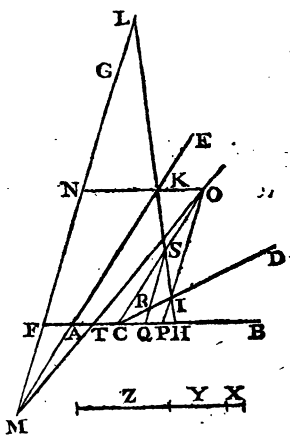
COMPOSITION.

Make CA to AF in the given ratio of the segment IK to KL, and join FL; this is the diverging line required. For draw NK and PI parallel to AB and FG, and meeting in O, join CO, and, assuming in it another point O′,

draw likewise the parallels $O'K'N'$ and $O'I'P'$, intersecting AE and AB in K' and I'; the transverse line $H'I'K'L'$ is cut similarly to HIKL.

For, since NO, $N'O'$ are parallel to AB, and OP, $O'P'$ parallel to FG, it follows that HI : IK :: PI : IO :: $P'I' : I'O'$ :: $H'I' : I'K'$. Again, because CA : AF :: IK : KL :: OK : KN; whence OC, EA, and GF converge to the same point, and consequently IK : KL :: OK : KN :: $O'K' : K'N'$ :: $I'K' : K'L'$.

The porism now demonstrated arises out of the indeterminate case of a celebrated problem:—"Four straight lines, AB, CD, AE and FG, being given in position, to draw a transverse line, HIKL, that shall be cut by them into segments in a given proportion." Suppose it done; produce GF and EA to meet in M, draw the parallels NKO and PIO, and join MTO. Because TA : AF :: OK : KN :: IK : KL, the ratio of TA to AF is given, and hence the point T and the straight line MO are given in position. Again, PI : IO :: HI : IK, and therefore the ratio of PI to PO is given; but the triangle CPI, being evidently given in species, the ratio of CP to PI is given; whence the ratio of CP to PO is given, and the triangle CPO is given in species. The straight lines MO and CO being, therefore, both given in position, their intersection O is given; consequently the parallels ON and OP are given in position, and thence are likewise given their intersections K and I, and the transverse line HIKL.



The construction is easily derived: For, having produ-

ced EA and GF to meet in M, make FA : AT :: Z : Y, and draw MTO. Again, take any point Q in CB, draw QS parallel to FG, and make QR : RS :: X : Y, join CS and produce it to meet MO in O, and draw OI and OK parallel to FG and AB; HIKL, which passes through the points of intersection I and K, is the straight line required. For HI : IK :: PI : IO :: QR : RS :: X : Y, and IK : KL :: OK : KN : TA : AF :: Y : Z.

Now, if the ratio of CA to AF should be the same as that of Y to Z, the point T will coincide with C, and the straight line TO with CO. The problem, therefore, becomes, in this case, porismatic, or every point whatever in CO has the property which belonged before to the single point O.

DEFINITION.

Isoperimetrical figures are such as have equal perimeters, or the same extent of linear boundary.

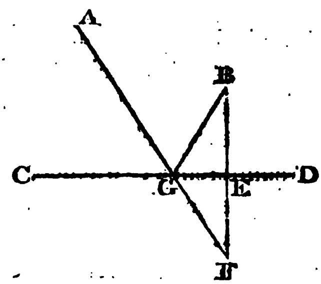
PROP. XXVI. PROB.

In a straight line given in position, to find a point, whose distances from two given points on the same side shall together be the least possible.

Let it be required, from the points A and B to some point in CD, to draw AG and BG, forming jointly a *minimum*.

ANALYSIS.

From B, either of the given points, let fall BE a perpendicular upon CD, and, having produced it equally on the opposite side, join GF. It is obvious that the triangles BEG, FEG are equal, and consequently that BG=GF; whence AG+GF is a *minimum*. But the points A and F are evidently both given, and since (I. 18. El.) the shortest communication between them is a straight line, its intersection G with CD is given, and therefore the inflected lines AG and BG are given in position.



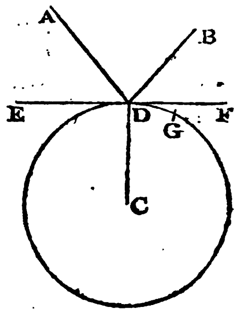
It hence appears, that, when the combined distance of the points A and B from the straight line CD is the least possible, the incident angles AGC and BGD are equal.

PROP. XXVII. THEOR.

Straight lines drawn from two given points to the circumference of a given circle are the least possible, when they make equal angles with a tangent applied at the point of inflection.

Of all the straight lines inflected from the points A and B to the circumference of the circle GDH, AD and BD

which meet the tangent EF at equal angles, form together a *minimum*.



For, by the last proposition, AD and BD, falling at an equal incidence, are jointly shorter than any other lines inflected from the points A and B to the straight line EF; but (I. 19. El.) such lines drawn to that tangent are less than the exterior lines which terminate in the circumference; whence, for both these reasons combined, AD and BD must form the *minimum* of all the straight lines inflected to the circumference GDH.

PROP. XXVIII. PROB.

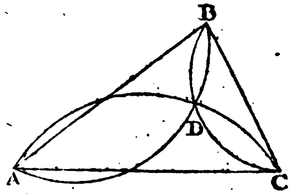
To find a point, whose distances from three given points are the least possible.

Let it be required, from the points A, B, and C, to draw AD, BD, and CD, such that their sum shall be a *minimum*.

ANALYSIS.

If the distance BD were supposed to remain constant, the position of D, in the circumference of a circle described from B with the radius BD, must, by the last proposition, be such, when AD and CD compose a *minimum*,

that the angle ADB shall be equal to CDB. For the same reason, if AD continued invariable, BD and CD, completing the *minimum*, must form with it equal angles ADB and ADC. Whence the straight lines AD, BD, and CD all make equal angles about their point of concourse.



Hence this construction:—Connect the triangle ABC, and upon each of the sides AC and BC describe equilateral triangles, and again circumscribe these by circles, which will intersect in the point D. For, the angles ADC and CDB, being the supplements of angles of equilateral triangles, are each equal to two third parts of two right angles, or to one-third of four right angles; consequently three such angles will stand about the point D.

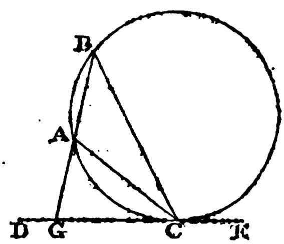
PROP. XXIX. PROB.

In a straight line given in position, to find a point, at which the straight lines, drawn to two given points on the same side, will contain the greatest angle.

Let it be required to draw AC and BC, so that the angle ACB shall be a *maximum*.

ANALYSIS.

Describe a circle about the points C, A, and B. Because the angle ACB is greater than any other which has its vertex in DE, the circumference must lie within that straight line, and therefore DE touches the circle; but (III. 30. El.) the point of contact C is given.



It is hence evident, that $GA.GB = GC^2$, and, therefore, the point C is assigned.

PROP. XXX. PROB.

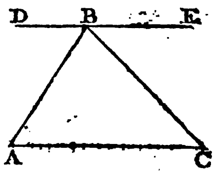
To find a triangle with a given perimeter, and standing on a given base, which shall contain the greatest area.

Let it be required to find a triangle ABC, constituted on the base AC, and containing, within a given perimeter, the greatest possible surface.

ANALYSIS.

Since the base of the triangle ABC is constant, while its area forms a *maximum*, the corresponding altitude must

evidently be the greatest possible, and consequently the vertex B lies in a parallel the remotest from AC. Wherefore lines inflected from the points A and C, to any point in that parallel, must be together greater than those drawn to any other parallel; or they must be greater than the sum of AB and CB. Hence those sides are conjointly the shortest possible, and, therefore, (III. 26.) the angle ABD is equal to CBE; but DE being parallel to AC, the alternating angles BAC and BCA are likewise equal, and consequently their opposite sides CB and AB are equal. The triangle ABC is thus isosceles; and it is also given, for its sides are all given.



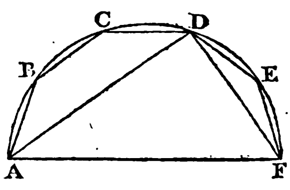
Cor. Hence an equilateral polygon is that which, under a given number of sides, contains, within the same perimeter, the greatest possible surface: For the rest of the figure remaining constant, suppose any two adjacent sides to vary, and the accrescent triangle so formed will be a *maximum*, when those sides are equal. The polygon, deriving its expansion from the aggregate accession of the exterior triangles, must therefore be the greatest possible, when such triangles are uniformly isosceles, and consequently all the sides of the figure are equal.

PROP. XXXI. THEOR.

If a polygon have all its sides given except one, it will contain the greatest area, when it can be inscribed in a semicircle, of which that indeterminate side is the diameter.

Let the polygon ABCDEF, having given sides AB, BC, CD, DE and EF, stand upon a base AF, which is variable; the area will attain its *maximum*, when AF becomes the diameter of a circumscribing semicircle.

For, AD and FD being inflected to any point D, the spaces ABCD and DEF will remain the same, while the angle ADF is enlarged, or the points A and F are distended. Whence the polygon must contain the greatest area, when the included triangle ADF is a *maximum*, Now, this will take place when the altitude of the triangle, or the perpendicular let fall from the vertex F upon AD, is the greatest possible. Wherefore (I. 22. El.) ADF is a right angle, and consequently (III. 26. El.) the point D lies in a semicircumference; but the same reason applies to every other intermediate point B, C, or E, of the polygon, which, consequently, in its state of *maximum*, is disposed within a semicircle described on the variable side AF.



Cor. 1. Hence a polygon, whose sides are all given, contains the greatest area, when it can be inscribed in a circle. For let ABCD be a polygon, which has each of its sides AB, BC, CD, and AD given. Draw the diameter AF, and join DF. The polygon ABCDF is thus a *maximum*; but the triangle ADF being evidently determinate, the remaining polygon ABCD is likewise a *maximum*.

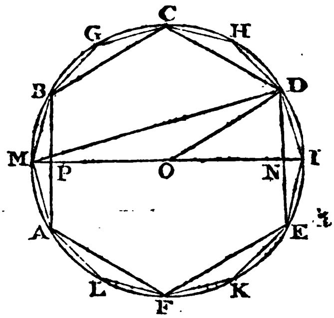
Cor. 2. Hence a regular polygon is that which, with a given perimeter, formed by a given number of sides, contains the greatest area. For, by the corollary to the last Proposition, the sides are all equal; but its angles are (III. 15. & 20. El.) also equal, since it occupies the circumference of a circle.

PROP. XXXII. THEOR.

A circle contains, within a given perimeter, the greatest possible area.

From the preceding investigations, it appears, that, the perimeter and number of sides being given, the figure of greatest capacity is a regular polygon. Let ABCDEF be such a polygon, bounded by the given perimeter: Bisect the corresponding arcs of the circumscribing circle, and another regular polygon MBGCHDIEKFLA will arise, having twice the number of sides. Draw the diameter MI, and join MD and OD. Both polygons are alike com-

posed of triangles equal to ODN and ODI, and consequently the area of the polygon ABCDEF is to that of MBGCHDIEKFLA as ON to OI, or as 2ON, or PN, to 2OI, or MI. But if this exterior polygon MBGCHDIEKFLA were contracted to the same perimeter with ABCDEF, its area would (VI. 33. El.) be diminished in the ratio of DI^2 to DN^2, that is, (III. 26. and VI. 17. c. 1. El.) in the ratio of MI to MN. Whence (V. 16. El.) the original polygon is to another of equal perimeter, and with double the number of sides, as PN to MN. An isoperimetrical figure has its area thus always increased, by doubling the number of its sides. Continuing this duplication therefore, the regular polygons which arise in succession will have their capacity perpetually enlarged. Whence the circle, as it forms the limit or extreme boundary of all those polygons, must, with a given circumference, contain the greatest possible space.



ELEMENTS

OF

PLANE TRIGONOMETRY.

ELEMENTS

OF

PLANE TRIGONOMETRY.

Trigonometry is the science of calculating, from certain *data*, the sides or angles of a triangle. Its conclusions are grounded on the application of the principles of Geometry and Arithmetic.

The sides of a triangle are measured, by referring them to some definite portion of linear extent, which is fixed by convention. The mensuration of angles is effected, by means of that universal standard derived from the partition of a circuit. Since angles were shown to be proportional to the intercepted arcs of a circle described from their vertex, the subdivision of the circumference therefore determines their magnitude. A quadrant, or the fourth part of the circumference, as it corresponds to a

right angle, hence forms the basis of angular measures. But these measures depend on the relation of certain orders of lines connected with the circle, and which it is necessary previously to investigate.

DEFINITIONS.

1. The *complement* of an arc is its defect from a quadrant; and its *supplement* is its defect from a semicircumference.

2. The *sine* of an arc is a perpendicular let fall from one of its extremities upon a diameter passing through the other.

3. The *versed sine* of an arc is that portion of a diameter intercepted between its sine and the circumference.

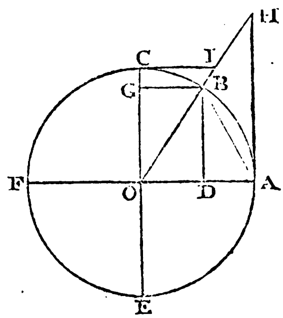
4. The *tangent* of an arc is a perpendicular drawn at one extremity to a diameter, and limited by a diameter extending through the other.

5. The *secant* of an arc is a straight line which joins the centre with the termination of the tangent.

In naming the *sine, tangent,* or *secant* of the *complement* of an arc, it is usual to employ the abbreviated terms of *cosine, cotangent,* and *cosecant.* A farther contraction is frequently made, in

noting the radius and other lines connected with the circle, by retaining only the first syllable of the word, or even the mere initial letter.

Let ACFE be a circle, having the diameters AF and CE at right angles; having taken any arc AB, produce the radius OB, and draw BD, AH perpendicular to AF, and BG, CI perpendicular to CE. Of this assumed arc AB, the *complement* is BC, and the *supplement* BCF; the *sine* is BD, the *cosine* BG or OD, the *versed sine* AD, the *coversed sine* CG, and the *supplementary versed sine* FD; the *tangent* of AB is AH, and its *cotangent* CI; and the *secant* of the same arc is OH, and its *cosecant* OI.



Several obvious consequences flow from these definitions:—

1. Since the diameter which bisects an arc bisects also the chord at right angles, it follows that half the chord of any arc is equal to the sine of half that arc.

2. In the right angled triangle ODB, $BD^2+OD^2=OB^2$; and hence the squares of the sine and cosine of an arc are together equal to the square of the radius.

3. The triangle ODB being evidently similar to OAH, OD : DB :: OA : AH; that is, the cosine of an arc is to the sine, as the radius to the tangent.

4. From the similar triangles ODB and OAH, OD : OB :: OA : OH ; wherefore the radius is a mean proportional between the cosine and the secant of an arc.

5. Since $BD^2 = AD.FD$, it is evident that the sine of an arc is a mean proportional between the versed sine and the supplementary versed sine, or between the sum and difference of the radius and the cosine.

6. Hence also the chord of an arc is a mean proportional between the versed sine and the diameter; for $AB^2 = AD.AF$.

7. The triangles OAH and ICO being similar, AH : OA :: OC : CI ; and hence the radius is a mean proportional between the tangent of an arc and its cotangent.

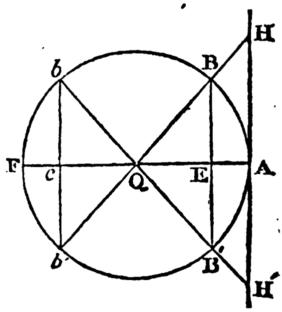
8. Since $OD^2 = BG^2 = CG.CE$, it follows that the cosine of an arc is a mean proportional between the sum and the difference of the radius and the sine.

The circumference of the circle is commonly divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees, each of them being subdivided into 60 minutes, and these again being each distinguished into 60 seconds. It very seldom is required to carry this subdivision any farther. Degrees, minutes, seconds, or thirds, are conveniently noted by these marks,

$$^\circ \quad ' \quad '' \quad '''$$

Thus, $23^\circ\ 27'\ 43''\ 42'''$, signifies 23 degrees, 27 minutes, 43 seconds, and 42 thirds.

Scholium. To discern more clearly the connexion of the lines derived from the circle, it will be proper to trace their successive values, while the corresponding arc is supposed to increase. Let the arc AB′ be made equal to AB, draw the diameter FOA, extend the diameters b'OB and bOB′, join BB′ and bb', and at A apply the double tangent HAH′. It is evident that BE $=$ be, or that the sine of the arc AB is equal to the sine of its supplement ABb. But B′E and $b'e$, which lie on the opposite side of the diameter, are likewise equal to BE; that is, the inverted sine of an arc is equal to the sine of that arc and its supplement, augmented each by a semicircumference. The arc AB, and its defect ABb Fb'B from a whole circumference, have both the same cosine OE; and the supplemental arc ABb, and its defect from a whole circumference, have likewise the same cosine, although with an inverted position. AH is the tangent not only of AB, but of the arc ABbFb', which is compounded of the original arc and a semicircumference; and the equal line AH′, on the opposite side, is at once the tangent of the supplementary arc ABb, and of ABbFb'B′ compounded of that arc and a semicircumference.



As the prolonged diameter b'OBH, therefore, turns about the centre, the sine and tangent both increase till the arc attains 90°, when the sine becomes equal to the radius, and the tangent vanishes into unlimited extent.

Between 90° and 180°, the sine again diminishes, and the tangent, re-appearing in the opposite direction, likewise contracts by successive diminutions. In the third quadrant, the sine emerges with a contrary position, and increases till it becomes equal to the radius; while the tangent, resuming its first position, stretches out till it vanishes away. Between 270° and 360°, the opposite sine again contracts, and the tangent, re-appearing on the same side, shrinks also by degrees to a point.

The same phases are thus repeated at each succeeding revolution. Hence the sine of an arc a is equal to the sine of the arc $(2m-1)\,180°+a$, and to the opposite sine of $(2m-1)180°+a$ and of $2m.\,180°-a$; and the tangent of an arc a is equal to the tangent of the arc $(2m-1)180°+a$, and to the opposite tangents of the arcs $(2m-1)\,180°-a$ and of $2m.\,180°-a$.

An arc may, by a simple extension of analogy, be conceived to comprehend innumerable other arcs. Thus, the arc AB, in fact, represents all the arcs which have their origin at A and their termination at B; it, therefore, includes not only the small arc AB, but that arc as augmented by successive revolutions, or the repeated addition of entire circumferences. Hence the sine or tangent of an arc a are the same with the sine or tangent of any arc $n.360°+a$.

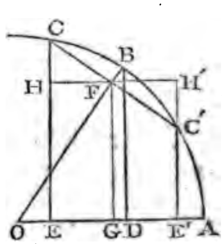
PROP. I. THEOR.

The rectangle under the radius and the sine of the sum or difference of two arcs, is equal to the sum or difference of the rectangles under their alternate sines and cosines.

Let A and B denote two arcs, of which A is the greater; then, $R \times S,\overline{A \pm B} = S,A \times Cos,B \pm Cos,A \times S,B$.

For, having made $BC' = BC$, it is evident that AC and AC′ will represent the sum and difference of the arcs AB and BC; join OB and CC′, and draw HFH′ parallel, and CE, FG, BD, and H′CE perpendicular, to the radius OA.

The triangles COF and C′OF, having the side CO equal to C′O, OF common, and the contained angles FOC and FOC′ measured by the equal arcs BC and BC′, are equal; wherefore OF bisects CC′ at right angles. But the triangles OBD and OFG being similar, OB : BD :: OF : FG, or HE, and consequently $OB \times HE = BD \times OF$. The triangles OBD



and CFH are likewise similar, for the right angle CFO being equal to HFG, if HFO be taken from both, the remaining angle CFH is equal to OFG or OBD; whence OB : OD :: CF : CH, and $OB \times CH = OD \times CF$. Wherefore

$OB\times HE+OB\times CH$, or $OB\times CE=BD\times OF+OD\times CF$. But BD and OD are the sine and cosine of the arc AB, CF, and OF the sine and cosine of BC, and CE is the sine of the compound arc AC. Consequently $R\times S,AC=S,AB\times Cos,BC+Cos,AB\times S,BC$.

Again, taking the difference of the rectangles, $OB\times H'E'-OB\times C'H'$, that is, $OB\times C'E'$, $=BD\times OF-OD\times CF$; and hence $R\times S,AC'=S,AB\times Cos,BC-Cos,AB\times S,BC$.

Cor. 1. If the two arcs A and B be equal, it is obvious that $R\times S,2A=S,A\times 2\,Cos,A$.

Cor. 2. Let the arc A contain 45°; then $R\times S,\overline{45^\circ\pm B}=S,45^\circ(Cos,B\pm S,B)=\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}R^2}(Cos,B\pm S,B)$, or $S,\overline{45^\circ\pm B}=(Cos,B\pm S,B)\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}}$.

PROP. II. THEOR.

The rectangle under the radius and the cosine of the sum or difference of two arcs, is equal to the difference or the sum of the rectangles under their respective cosines and sines.

Let A and B denote two arcs, of which A is the greater; then $R\times Cos,\overline{A\pm B}=Cos,A\times Cos,B\mp S,A\times S,B$.

For, in the preceding figure, the triangles OBD and OFG being similar, OB : OD :: OF : OG, and $OB \times OG = OD \times OF$; and the triangles OBD and CFH being likewise similar, OB : BD :: CF : FH, or GE, and consequently $OB \times GE = BD \times CF$. Wherefore $OB \times OG - OB \times GE = OB \times OE = OD \times OF - BD \times CF$; that is, $R \times \text{Cos},AC = \text{Cos},AB \times \text{Cos},BC - S,AB \times S,BC$.

Again, taking the sum of those rectangles, $OB \times OG + OB \times GE' = OB \times OE' = OD \times OF + BD \times CF$; whence $R \times \text{Cos},AC' = \text{Cos},AB \times \text{Cos},BC + S,AB \times S,BC$.

Cor. 1. If A and B represent two equal arcs, it will follow, that $R \times \text{Cos},2A = \text{Cos}^2,A - S^2,A$; but (2 cor. def.) $\text{Cos}^2,A = R^2 - S^2,A$, and therefore $R \times \text{Cos},2A = R^2 - 2S^2,A$; or $2S^2,A = R(R - \text{Cos},2A) = R \times VS,2A$, and $S^2,A = \frac{1}{2}R \times VS,2A$, or $S,A = \surd(\frac{1}{2}R(R - \text{Cos},2A))$. Wherefore $S^2,A - S^2,B = \frac{1}{2}R\,(VS,2A - VS,2B) = \frac{1}{2}R\,(\text{Cos},2B - \text{Cos},2A)$.

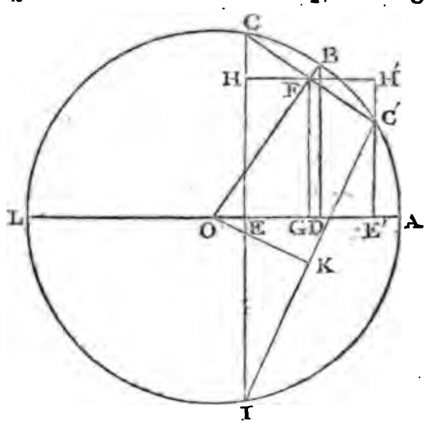
Cor. 2. Instead of A in the last corollary, substitute $45^\circ + B$, and $S,\overline{45^\circ + B} = \surd(\frac{1}{2}R\,(R - \text{Cos},\overline{90^\circ + 2B})) = \surd(\frac{1}{2}R(R + S,2B))$. But, by the 2d corollary of the preceding proposition, $S,\overline{45^\circ + B} = (\text{Cos},B + S,B)\surd\frac{1}{2}$; whence $\text{Cos},B + S,B = \surd(R(R + S,2B))$. Again, $S,\overline{45^\circ - B} = \surd(\frac{1}{2}R\,(R - \text{Cos},\overline{90^\circ - 2B}))\ \surd(\frac{1}{2}R\,(R - S,2B)) = (\text{Cos},B - S,B)\surd\frac{1}{2}$; consequently $\text{Cos},B - S,B = \surd(R(R - S,2B))$.

PROP. III. THEOR.

Of three equidifferent arcs, the rectangle under the radius, and the sum or difference of the sines of the extremes, is equal to twice the rectangle under the cosine or sine of the common difference and the sine of the mean arc.

Let A—B, A, and A+B represent three arcs increasing by the difference B; then $R(S,\overline{A+B}+S,\overline{A-B}) = 2Cos,B \times S,A$, and $R(S,\overline{A+B}-S,\overline{A-B}) = 2S,B \times Cos,A$.

These properties may be deduced from the preceding theorems; but they are more easily perceived, by referring immediately to the original figure. The triangles OBD and OFG being similar, OB : BD :: OF : FG, or OB : BD : : 2OF : 2FG, or CE+C E′, and OB (CE+C′E′)= 2OF × BD; that is, R (S,AC + S,AC′)= 2Cos, BC × S,AB. Again, OB : OD :: CF : CH :: 2CF : 2CH or CE—CE′, and OB(CE—CE′)=2CF × BD; consequently R(S,AC—S,AC′) = 2S,BC × Cos,AB.



Cor. 1. Hence also $R(Cos,\overline{A-B}+Cos,\overline{A+B})=$ $2Cos,B\times Cos,A$, and $R(Cos,\overline{A-B}-Cos,\overline{A+B})=$ $2S,B\times S,A$.

For $OB : BD :: OF : OG :: 2OF : 2OG$, or $OE'+OE$, and $OB(OE'+OE)=2OF\times OD$; that is, $R(Cos,AC'+Cos,AC)=2Cos,BC\times Cos,AB$. Again, $OB : BD :: CF : FH :: 2CF : 2FH$, or $OE'-OE$, and $OB(OE'-OE)=2CF\times BD$; that is, $R(Cos,AC'-Cos,AC)=2S,BC\times S,AB$.

Cor. 2. Since $VS,B=R-Cos,B$, it follows that $R(S,\overline{A+B}+S,\overline{A-B})=2R\times S,A-2VS,B\times S,A$, and consequently $R\times S,\overline{A+B}=2R\times S,A-R\times S,\overline{A-B}-2VS,B\times S,A$, or $R(S,\overline{A+B}-S,A)=R(S,A-S,\overline{A-B})-2VS,B\times S,A$. In the same way, it is shown that $R(Cos,\overline{A-B}-Cos,A)=R(Cos,A-Cos,\overline{A+B})+2VS,B\times Cos,A$.

Cor. 3. If the mean arc contain 60°; then $R(S,\overline{60°+B}-S,\overline{60°-B})=2S,B\times Cos,60°$, or $S,B\times 2S,30°$. But twice the sine of 30° being (cor. 1. defin.) equal to the chord of 60° or the radius, it is evident that $S,\overline{60°+B}-S,\overline{60°-B}=S,B$, or $S,\overline{60°+B}=S,\overline{60°-B}+S,B$.

This property also follows from Prop. 14. Book IV. of the Elements.

Cor. 4. Let the mean arc be 45°; then $R(S,\overline{45°+B}-S,\overline{45°-B})=2S,B\times Cos,45°=2S,B\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}R^2}$. Wherefore, from

the 2d corollary to the last proposition, $2S,B\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{(\frac{1}{2}R(R+S,2B))} - \sqrt{(\frac{1}{2}R(R-S,2B))}$, and consequently $2S,B = \sqrt{(R(R+S,2B))} - \sqrt{(R(-S,2B.))}$

Cor. 5. Produce CE to the circumference, draw CI meeting the production of FG in K, and join OK. Since FK is parallel to CI and bisects CC′, it likewise bisects IC′; and hence OK is perpendicular to KC′, which is, therefore, the sine of half the arc IAC′, or of half the sum of the arcs AC and AC′, as CF is the sine of half their difference. But (II.29.El.) $IC'^2 - CC'^2 = IC \times 2C'E'$, or $C'K^2 - CF^2 = CE \times CE'$; consequently $S^2,AB - S^2,BC = S,AC \times S,AC'$, or, employing the general notation, $S^2,-S^2,B = S,\overline{A+B} \times S,-AB = (2.cor.1)\frac{1}{2}R(Cos,2B - Cos,2A.)$

Scholium. By help of this proposition, the sines and co-sines of multiple arcs are easily determined; but the expressions for them will become simpler, if the radius be supposed equal to unit. For A,2A, and 3A being three equidifferent arcs, $S,A + S,3A = 2Cos,A \times S,2A = 2Cos,A \times 2Cos,A \times S,A$, or $S,3A = 4\,Cos^2,A \times S,A - S,A$; and $Cos,A + Cos,3A = 2Cos,A \times Cos,2A = 2Cos,A(2Cos^2,A - 1) = 4Cos,^3A - 2Cos,A$, or $Cos,3A = 4Cos^3,A - 3Cos,A$. Again, since 2A, 3A, and 4A are equidifferent arcs, $S,2A + S\,4A = 2Cos,A \times S,3A = 8Cos^3,A \times S,A - 2Cos,A \times S,A$ or $S,4A = 8\,Cos^3,A \times S,A - 4Cos,A \times S,A$;

$\text{Cos}, 2A + \text{Cos}, 4A = 2\text{Cos}, A \times \text{Cos}, 3A = 2\text{Cos},A\,(4\text{Cos}^3,A - 3\,\text{Cos},A) = 8\text{Cos}^4, A - 8\text{Cos}^2,A + 1.$ In like manner, assuming the equidifferent arcs 3A, 4A, 5A, and the sine and cosine of 5A are found; and this mode of procedure may be continually repeated. To abridge the notation, however, it will be proper to express the sine and cosine of the arc a by s and c. The results are thus exhibited in a tabular form.

$\text{S}, 2a = 2cs.$
$\text{S}, 3a = 4c^2s - s.$
$\text{S}, 4a = 8c^3s - 4cs.$
$\text{S}, 5a = 16c^4s - 12c^2s + s.$
$\text{S}, 6a = 32c^5s - 32\,c^3s + 6cs.$
$\text{S}, 7a = 64c^6s - 80c^4s + 24c^2s - s.$
&c. &c. &c.

$\text{Cos}, 2a = 2c^2 - 1.$
$\text{Cos}, 3a = 4c^3 - 3c.$
$\text{Cos}, 4a = 8c^4 - 8c^2 + 1.$
$\text{Cos}, 5a = 16c^5 - 20c^3 + 5c.$
$\text{Cos}, 6a = 32c^6 - 48c^4 + 18c^2 - 1.$
&c. &c. &c.

If in these expressions, $1-s^2$ be substituted for c^2, the sines of the odd multiples a, and the cosines of the even multiples will be represented merely by the powers of the sine of a.

$$S,3a = 3s - 4s^3.$$
$$S,5a = 5s - 20s^3 + 16s^5;$$
$$S,7a = 7s - 56s^3 + 112s^5 - 64s^7.$$
&c. &c. &c.

$$Cos,2a = -2s^2 + 1.$$
$$Cos,4a = +8s^4 - 8s^2 + 1.$$
$$Cos,6a = -32s^6 + 48s^4 - 18s^2 + 1.$$
&c. &c. &c.

By tracing out the law of derivation, it would appear that, in general,

$$S,na = ns - n.\frac{n^2-1}{2\cdot 3}s^3 + n.\frac{n^2-1}{2\cdot 3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4\cdot 5}s^5 - n.\frac{n^2-1}{2\cdot 3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4\cdot 5}.\frac{n^2-25}{6\cdot 7}s^7 + \&c.$$

where n is any odd number; and that

$$Cos,na = \pm 3^{n-1}s^n \mp n.2^{n-3}s^{n-2} \pm n.\frac{n-3}{2}.2^{n-5}s^{n-4} \pm n.\frac{n-4}{2}.\frac{n-5}{3}.2^{n-7}s^{n-6} \mp \&c.$$

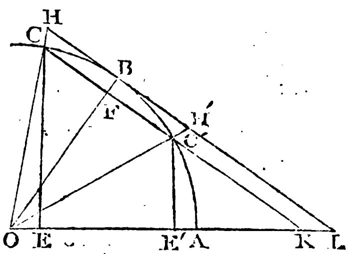
where n is any even number, the upper signs being used when half the number also is even, and the lower signs when that half is odd.

PROP. IV. THEOR.

The sum of the sines of two arcs is to their difference, as the tangent of half the sum of the arcs to the tangent of half the difference.

If A and B denote two arcs; the $S,A + S,B : S,A - S,B :: T,\frac{A+B}{2} : T,\frac{A-B}{2}$.

For, let AC and AC′ be the sum and difference of the arcs AB and BC, or BC′; draw the perpendiculars CE, and C′E′, extend the chord CC′, and apply at B the parallel tangent HBL, meeting in K and L the diameter produced, and draw OCH, OFB and OC′H′. Because CE is parallel to C′E′, and CK to HL, CE : C′E′ :: CK : C′K (VI. 2. El.) HL : H′L; and consequently $CE + C'E' : CE - C'E' :: HL + H'L : HL - HL'$, that is, 2BL : 2BH, or BL : BH. But CE and C′E′ are the sines of the arcs AC and AC′, and BL and BH are the tangents of AB and BC, or of half the sum and half the difference of those arcs



Wherefore $S,AC + S,AC' : S,AC - S,AC' :: T,\frac{AC+AC'}{2} : T,\frac{AC-AC'}{2}$.

Cor. 1. The sines of the sum and difference of two arcs are proportional to the sum and difference of their tangents. For CE : C′E′ : : HL, or BL + BH : H′L, or BL — BH; that is, resuming the general notation, $S,\overline{A+B} : S,\overline{A-B} :: T,A + T,B : T,A - T,B$.

Cor. 2. Let the greater arc be equal to a quadrant; and $R + S,B : R - S,B :: T,\overline{45^\circ + \tfrac{1}{2}B} : T,\overline{45^\circ - \tfrac{1}{2}B}$, or Cot. $\overline{45^\circ + \tfrac{1}{2}B}$. But, the radius being a mean proportional between the tangent and cotangent of any arc, it follows that $\sqrt{(R(R + S,B))} : \sqrt{(R(R - S,B))} :: R : T,\overline{45^\circ - \tfrac{1}{2}B}$; or, since (cor. 7. def.) the cosine of an arc is a mean proportional between the sum and the difference of the radius and the sine, $R + S,B : \text{Cos},B :: R : T,\overline{45^\circ - \tfrac{1}{2}B}$, and $R - S,B : \text{Cos},B$, or $\text{Cos},B : R + S,B :: R : T.\overline{45^\circ + \tfrac{1}{2}B}$. But $\text{Cos},B : S,B :: R : T,B$, and $\text{Cos},B : R :: R : \text{Sec},B$; whence $T,\overline{45^\circ + \tfrac{1}{2}B} = T,B + \text{Sec},B$.

If, instead of B, there be substituted its complement, the former analogy will become $R + \text{Cos},B : S,B :: R : T,\tfrac{1}{2}B$.

Cor. 3. Let the greater arc be 45°; and, from the first corollary, $S,\overline{45^\circ + B} : S,\overline{45^\circ - B}$, or Cos, $\overline{45^\circ + B} :: R + T,B : R - T,B$. But $\text{Cos},B : S,B :: R : T,B$, and therefore $\text{Cos},B + S,B : \text{Cos},B - S,B :: R + T,B : R + T,B$; whence, applying cor. 2, Prop. II. $\sqrt{(R(R + S,2B))} : \sqrt{(R(R - S,2B))} :: R + T,B : R - T.B$.

Again, because $\text{Cos},\overline{45^\circ - B} : S,\overline{45^\circ - B} :: R : T,\overline{45^\circ - B}$, it follows that, $R + T,B : R - T,B :: R : T,\overline{45^\circ - B}$.

PROP. V. THEOR.

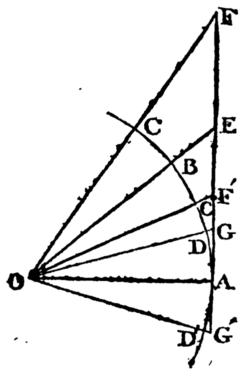
As the difference or sum of the square of the radius and the rectangle under the tangents of two arcs, is to the square of the radius,—so is the sum or difference of their tangents, to the tangent of the sum or difference of the arcs.

Let A and B denote two arcs, of which A is the greater; then $R^2 \mp T,A \times T,B : R^2 :: T,A \pm T,B : T,\overline{A \pm B}$.

For (3 cor. def. T.) $R : T,A :: Cos,A : S,A$, and $R : T,B :: Cos,B : S,B$; whence (V. 21. El.) $R^2 : T,A \times T,B :: Cos,A \times Cos,B : S,A \times S,B$, and (V. 8. and 11. El.) $R^2 \mp T,A \times T,B : R^2 :: Cos,A \times Cos,B \mp S,A \times S,B : Cos,A \times Cos,B$, that is, $R^2 \pm T,A \times T,B : R^2 :: R \times Cos,\overline{A \pm B} : Cos,A \times Cos,B$. But (3 cor. def. T,) $Cos,\overline{A \pm B} \times T,\overline{A \pm B} = R \times S,\overline{A \pm B}$, and $Cos,A \times Cos,B\ (T,A \pm T,B) = Cos,A \times T,A \times Cos,B \pm Cos,A \times Cos,B \times T,B = R \times S,A \times Cos,B \pm R \times Cos,A \times S,B =$ (Prop. 1. T.) $R^2 \times S,\overline{A \pm B}$; wherefore (V. 3. El.) $R \times Cos,\overline{A \pm B} : Cos,A \times Cos,B :: T,A \pm T,B : T,\overline{A \pm B}$, and consequently $R^2 \mp T,A \times T,B : R^2 :: T,A \pm T,B : T,\overline{A \pm B}$.

Otherwise thus:

Let AB and BC, or BC', be two arcs, of which AB is the greater; make AD, or AD', equal to BC, and apply the respective tangents. Because OAE is a right angled triangle, and OG',OF, are drawn, making equal angles with OA and OE, it follows, from cor. 2. prop. 28, Book VI. of the Elements, that $OA^2 - AE \times AG : OA^2 :: EG' : AF$, and consequently $R^2 - T,AB \times T,BC : R^2 :: T,AB + T,BC : T,\overline{AB+BC}$. Again, since OG,OF' make equal angles with OA,OE, it is evident, from cor. 1. to the same proposition, that $OA^2 + AE \times AG : OA^2 :: EG : AF'$, and hence $R^2 + T,AB \times T,BC : R^2 :: T,AB - T,BC : T,\overline{AB-BC}$.



Cor. 1. Let the two arcs be equal; and $R^2 - T^2,A : R^2 :: 2T,A : T,2A$.

Cor. 2. Let the greater arc contain 45°; and since $T,45° = R$, it follows that $R^2 \mp R \times T,B : R^2 :: R \pm T,B : T,\overline{45° \pm B}$, or $R \mp T,B : R \pm T,B :: R : T,\overline{45° \pm B}$.

Cor. 3. The radius being expressed by unit, the sum of the tangents of the angles of any triangle, is equal to the number arising from their continued product. For, let

A, B, and C, denote the several angles of the triangle; and since two of these, such as A and B, are supplementary to the remaining one C, the tangent of A+B is the same (schol. def. T.) as that of the third angle in an opposite direction. Whence $\frac{T,A+T,B.}{1-T,A.T,B} = -T,C$, and $T,A+T,B=-T,C+T,A.T,B.T,C$, or $T,A+T,B+T,C.=T,A.T,B.T,C$.

Scholium. Assuming the radius equal to unit, expressions are hence easily derived for the tangents of multiple arcs. Let t denote the tangent of an arc a; then $1-t^2 : 1 :: 2t : T,2a = \frac{2t}{1-t^2}$ and $1-t.\frac{2t}{1-t^2} : 1 :: t+\frac{2t}{1-t^2} : T,3a = \frac{3t-t^3}{1-3t^2}$. In like manner, it will be found that,

$$T,4a=\frac{4t-4t^3}{1-6t^2+t^4}.$$

$$T,5a=\frac{5t-10t^3+t^5}{1-10t^2+5t^4}.$$

$$T,6a=\frac{6t-20t^3+6t^5}{1-15t^2+15t^4-t^6}.$$

&c. &c. &c.

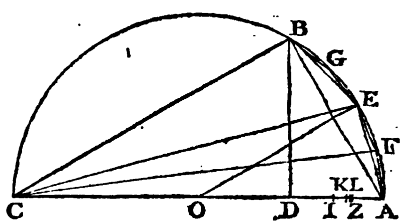
It may be thence inferred, that

$$T,na=\frac{nt-n.\frac{n-1}{2}.\frac{n-2}{3}.t^3+n.\frac{n-1}{2}.\frac{n-2}{3}.\frac{n-3}{4}.\frac{n-4}{5}.t^5 \ \&c.}{1-n.\frac{n-1}{2}.t^2+n.\frac{n-1}{2}.\frac{n-2}{3}.\frac{n-3}{4}.t^4 \ \&c.}$$

PROP. VI. THEOR.

The supplemental chord of half an arc, is a mean proportional between the radius, and the sum of the diameter and the supplemental chord of the whole arc.

This property, which is only a modification of cor. 1. Prop. 2, will admit of a more direct demonstration. For draw the chord AB, the semichords AE and BE, and the supplemental chords CB and CE, and the radius OE. The isosceles triangles AEB and COE are similar, for the angles OCE and EAB at the base stand on equal arcs AE and EB; consequently AE : AB : : CO : CE. But, ACBE being a quadrilateral figure contained in a circle, CE.AB = AE.CB + EB.CA = AE (CA + CB), or AE : AB :: CE : CA + CB; wherefore CO : CE :: CE : CA + CB, or $CE^2 = CA\left(\frac{CA+CB}{2}\right)$.



Cor. 1. Hence, in small arcs, the ratio of the sine to the arc approaches that of equality. For, let the semiarcs AE

and EB be again bisected in F and G; and, continuing their subdivision indefinitely, let the successive intermediate chords be drawn. The ratio of the sine BD to the arc AB may be viewed as compounded of the ratio of BD to the chord AB, of that of AB to the two chords AE and EB, of that of AE and EB to the four chords AF,FE,EG, and GB, and so forth. But these ratios, it has been shown, are the same respectively as those of the supplemental chords CB,CE,CF, &c. to the diameter CA. And since each of the ratios CB : CA, CE : CA, CF : CA, &c. approaches to equality, it is evident that their compounded ratio, or that of the sine to its corresponding arc, must also approach to equality.

Cor. 2. Hence the ratio of the sine BD to the arc AB is expressed numerically, by the ratio of the continued product of the series of supplemental chords CB,CE,CF, &c. to the relative continued power of the diameter CA. That ratio may, therefore, be determined to any degree of exactness, by the repeated application of the proposition in computing those derivative chords. But a very convenient approximation is more readily assigned. Make CD to CI as CB to CA, CI to CK as CE to CA, CK to CL as CF to CA, and so forth, stretching always towards the limit Z; then the ratio of CD to CZ, being compounded of these ratios, must express the ratio of the sine BD to its corresponding arc AB. Now CD : CB :: CB : CA; consequently CB=CI, and CD : CI :: CI : IA, or the point I nearly bisects DA. Again,

lines themselves; for $2AO,AD = AB^2 = BD^2 + AD^2$, or employing v to denote the versed sine, $2v = s^2 + v^2$, and $v = \frac{s^2}{2} + \frac{v}{2}$ If, therefore, the arc be small, it may be sufficiently near to assume $v = \frac{s^2}{2}$; but should greater accuracy be required, substitute this value of v in the second term of the complete expression, and $v = \frac{s^2}{2} + \frac{s^4}{8}$, which will form a very close approximation.

Calculation of the Trigonometrical Lines.

The preceding theorems contain all the principles required in constructing Trigonometrical Tables. The radius being denoted by unit, the several lines connected with the circle are referred to that standard, and are generally computed to seven decimal places.

The first object is to compute the SINES for every arc of the quadrant.

Since the semicircumference of a circle whose radius is unit was found, by the scholium to Prop. 38. Book VI. of the Elements, to be 3.1415926, the length of the arc of one minute is .0002909, which, in so small an arc, may be assumed as equal to the sine, and consequently the versed sine of a minute $= \frac{1}{2}(.0002909)^2 = .000,000,042,308$. Whence, by cor. 2d. to Prop. 3d. $S,\overline{A+1'} = 2S,A - 2S,A \times .000,000,042,308 - S,\overline{A-1'}$; and therefore, by a series of repeated operations, the intermediate arc being

successively 1′, 2′, 3′, 4′, &c. the sines of 2′, 3′, 4′, 5′, &c. in their order will be calculated.

The numbers thus obtained will at first scarcely differ from an uniform progression, the versed sine of 1′, which forms the multiplier of deviation, being so extremely small. It is hence superfluous to compute rigidly all those minute variations. The labour may be greatly shortened, by calculating the sines for each degree only, and employing some abridged process for filling up the sines, corresponding to the subdivision in minutes.

The arc of one degree being equal to .0174533, it follows from the scholium to Prop. 6., that the sine of $1° = .0174533 - \frac{1}{6}(.0174533)^3 = .0174524$, and hence the versed sine of $1° = \frac{1}{2}(.0174524)^2 = .0001523$. Wherefore $S,\overline{A+1°} = 2S,A - 2S,A \times .0001523 - S,\overline{A-1°}$; or, *if from twice the sine of an arc diminished by its* $6566\frac{1}{4}$*th part the sine of an arc one degree lower be subtracted, the remainder will exhibit the sine of an arc, which is one degree higher.* Thus,

$S,2° = 2S,1° - 2S,1° \times .0001523 = .0349048 - .0000053$
$= .0348995$

$S,3° = 2S,2° - 2S,2° \times .0001523 - S,1° = .0697990 - .0000106 -$
$.0174524 = .0523360.$

$S,4° = 2S,3° - 2S,3° \times .0001523 - S,2° = .1046720 - .0000160 -$
$.0348995 = .0697565.$

After this manner, the sines for each degree is computed in succession.

But the sines may be found, independently of the previous quadrature of the circle. Assuming an arc whose chord is already known, it is easy, from prop. to determine,

The SECANTS are deduced by cor. 4. to the definitions, since they are the reciprocals of the cosines.

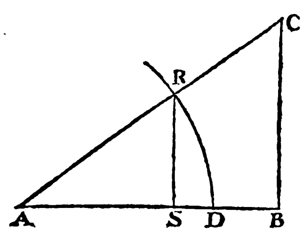
From the lower tangents and secants, the tangents of arcs that exceed 45° are most easily derived; for (cor. 2. Prop. 4. T.) $T,\overline{45°+a} = Sec,2a + T,2a$, Thus, $T,46° = Sec,2°+T,2°$, or $1.0355303 = 1.0006095 + .0349208$.

PROP. VII. THEOR.

In a right angled triangle, the radius is to the sine of an oblique angle, as the hypotenuse to the opposite side.

Let the triangle ABC be right angled at B; then R : S,CAB :: AC : CB.

For assume AR equal to the given radius, describe the arc RD, and draw the perpendicular RS. The triangles ARS and ACB are evidently similar, and therefore AR : RS :: AC : CB. But, AR being the radius, RS is the sine of the arc RD which measures the angle RAD or CAB; and consequently R : S,A :: AC : CB.

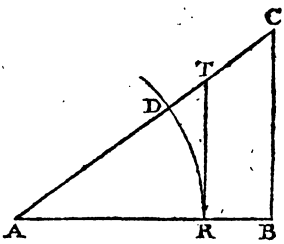


PROP. VIII. THEOR.

In a right angled triangle, the radius is to the tangent of an oblique angle, as the adjacent side to the opposite side.

Let the triangle ABC be right angled at B; then R : T,BAC :: AB : BC.

For, assuming AR equal to the given radius, describe the arc RD, and draw the perpendicular RT. The triangles ART and ABC being similar, AR : RT :: AB : BC. But, AR being the radius, RT is the tangent of the arc RD which measures the angle at A; and therefore R : T,A :: AB : BC.



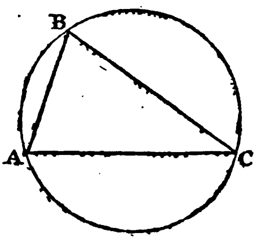
Cor. Hence the radius is to the secant of an angle, as the adjacent side to the hypotenuse. For AT is the secant of the arc RD, or of the angle at A; and, from similar triangles, AR : AT :: AB : AC.

PROP. IX. THEOR.

The sides of any triangle are as the sines of their opposite angles.

In the triangle ABC, the side AB is to BC, as the sine of the angle at C to the sine of that at A.

For let a circle be described about the triangle; and the sides AB and BC, being chords of the intercepted arcs or of the angles at the centre, are (cor. def. T.) equal to twice the sines of the halves of those angles, or the angles ACB and CAB at the circumference. But, of the same angles, the chords or sines (VI. 35. El.) are proportional to the radius; and consequently AB : BC : : S,C : S,A.



PROP. X. THEOR.

In any triangle, the sum of two sides, is to the difference, as the tangent of half the sum of the angles at the base, to the tangent of half their difference.

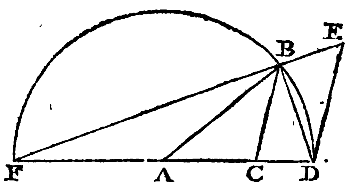
In the triangle ABC, AB + AC : AB—AC : : T,$\frac{C+B}{2}$: T,$\frac{C-B}{2}$.

For, by the last proposition, AB : AC :: S,C : S,B, and consequently (V. 12. El.) AB + AC : AB — AC :: S,C + S,B : S,C — S,B. But, by Prop. 4, S,C + S,B : S,C — S,B :: $T, \frac{C+B}{2} : T, \frac{C-B}{2}$; wherefore

$$AB+AC : AB-AC :: T, \frac{C+B}{2} : T, \frac{C-B}{2}.$$

Otherwise thus:

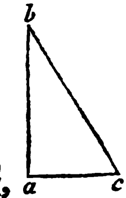
From the vertex A, and with a distance equal to the greater side AB, describe the semicircle FBD, meeting the other side AC extended both ways to F and D, join BD and BF, which produce to meet straight line DE drawn parallel to CB.



Because the isosceles triangle DAB, has the same vertical angle with the triangle CAB, each of its remaining angles ADB and ABD is (I. 34. El.) equal to half the sum of the angles ACB and ABC; and therefore (II. 13. cor.) the defect of ABC from that mean, that is the angle CBD, or its alternate angle BDE, must be equal to half the difference of those angles. Now FBD being (III. 26. El.) a right angle, BF and BE are tangents of the angles BDF and BDE, to the radius DB, and hence are proportional to the tangents of those angles with any other radius. But

since CB and DE are parallel, CF, or AB + AC : CD, or AB — AC : : BF : BE ; consequently AB + AC : AB—AC : : $T,\frac{ACB + ABC}{2} : T,\frac{ACB—ABC}{2}$, or AB+AC:AB—AC : : Cot. $\frac{1}{2}$ A : Cot. $\overline{B+\frac{1}{2}A}$, or — Cot. $\overline{C+\frac{1}{2}A}$.

Cor. Suppose another triangle *abc* to have the sides *ab* and *ac* equal to AB and BC, but containing a right angle: It is obvious that $T,\frac{c+b}{2} : T,\frac{c—b}{2}$: : $T,\frac{ACB+ABC}{2} : T,\frac{ACB — ABC}{2}$, or

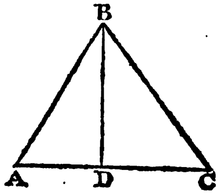


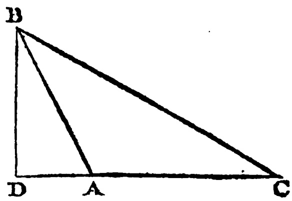
R:T,$\overline{45°—b}$: : $T,\frac{ACB+ ABC}{2} : T,\frac{ACB — ABC}{2}$, that is, R : T, $\overline{45°—b}$: : Cot. $\frac{1}{2}$B : Cot. $\overline{B + \frac{1}{2}A}$, or, — Cot. $\overline{C+\frac{1}{2}A}$. Now, in the right angled triangle *abc*, *ab*, or AB, is to *ac*, or AC, as the radius, to the tangent of the angle at *b*.

PROP. XI. THEOR.

In any triangle, as twice the rectangle under two sides, is to the difference between their squares and the square of the base, so is the radius, to the cosine of the contained angle.

In the triangle ABC, $2AB \times BC : AB^2 + AC^2 — BC^2$: : R : Cos, BAC.





For let fall the perpendicular BD. In the right angled triangle ADB, AB : AD :: R : S,ABD, or Cos, BAC; consequently $2AB \times AC$: $2AD \times AC$ :: R : Cos, BAC. But (II. 31. El.) twice the rectangle under AD and AC is equal to the difference of the squares AB and AC from the square of BC. Whence $2AB \times AC : AB^2 + AC^2 - BC^2$ :: R : Cos, BAC.

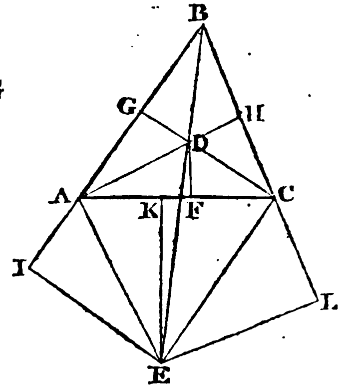
PROP. XII. THEOR.

In any triangle, the rectangle under the semiperimeter and its excess above the base, is to the rectangle under its excesses above the two sides, as the square of the radius, to the square of the tangent of half the contained angle.

In the triangle ABC, the perimeter being denoted by P, $\frac{1}{2}P(\frac{1}{2}P - AC) : (\frac{1}{2}P - AB)(\frac{1}{2}P - BC) :: R^2 : T^2,\frac{1}{2}B$.

For, employing the same construction as in Prop. 37, Book VI. of the Elements; since the triangles BIE and BGD are right angled, BI : IE :: R : T,IBE, or T,½B, and BG : GD :: R : T,GBD, or T,½B; whence (V. 21. El.) $BI \times BG : IE \times GD :: R^2 : T^2,\frac{1}{2}B$.

But it was proved that $IE \times GD = AI \times AG$; wherefore $BI \times BG : AI \times AG :: R^2 : T^2, \frac{1}{2}B$. Now BI is equal to the semiperimeter, BG is its excess above the base AC, and AI, AG are its excesses above the sides AB and BC; consequently the proportion is established.



PROP. XIII. THEOR.

In any triangle, the rectangle under two sides, is to the rectangle under the semiperimeter and its excess above the base, as the square of the radius, to the square of the cosine of half the contained angle.

In the triangle ABC, the perimeter being denoted by P, $AB \times BC : \frac{1}{2}P\ (\frac{1}{2}P - AC) :: R^2 : \text{Cos}^2\ \frac{1}{2}B$.

For, the same construction remaining; in the right angled triangles BIE and BGD,

$$BE : BI :: R : S, BEI, \text{ or Cos}, \tfrac{1}{2}B,$$
$$\text{and } BD : BG :: R : S, BDG, \text{ or Cos}, \tfrac{1}{2}B;$$
$$\text{whence } BE \times BD : BI \times BG :: R^2 : \text{Cos}^2, \tfrac{1}{2}B.$$

But the quadrilateral figure EADC being right angled at A and C, is (III. 21. cor.) contained in a circle, and consequently (III. 20. El.) the angle AED or AEB is equal to ACD or to DCB; wherefore, since by construction the angle ABE is equal to DBC, the triangles BAE and BDC

are similar, and BE : AB :: BC : BD, or BE × BD = AB × BC. Hence AB × BC : BI × BG : : R^2 : Cos^2, ½B. The proposition is therefore demonstrated.

PROP. XIV. THEOR.

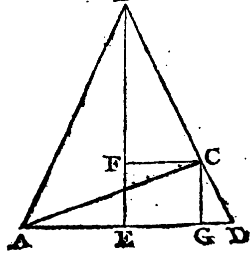
In any triangle, as the rectangle under two sides is to the rectangle under the excesses of the semiperimeter above those sides, so is the square of the radius, to the square of the sine of half their contained angle.

In the triangle ABC, the perimeter being still denoted by P, AB × BC : (½P — AB) (½P—BC) : : R^2 : S^2,½B.

For, the same construction being retained, in the right angled triangles BIE and BGD, BE : IE : : R : S,½B,
and BD : GD : : R : S,½B;
whence BE × BD : IE × GD : : R^2 : S^2,½B.
But it has been proved that BE × BD = AB × BC, and IE × GD = AI × AG, or the rectangle under the excesses of the semiperimenter above the sides AB and BC; wherefore the proposition is established.

Otherwise thus:

Produce the shorter side BC till BD be equal to AB, join AD, let BE bisect the vertical angle, and draw CG and CF parallel to BE and AD. Since BE is perpendicular to ED and FC, it follows that BD, or AB : ED : : R : S,½B, and BC : FC, or EG :: R : S,½B. Wherefore AB × BC : ED × EG



$:: R^2 : S^2, \frac{1}{4}B$. Now (II. 29. El.) $2ED \times 2EG = AC^2 - CD^2 =$ (II. 23. El.) $(AC + CD)(AC - CD)$, and consequently $ED \times EG = \left(\frac{AC+CD}{2}\right)\left(\frac{AC-CD}{2}\right)$; but $\frac{AC+CD}{2} = \frac{AC + AB - BC}{2} = \frac{P - 2BC}{2} = \frac{1}{2}P - BC$, and $\frac{AC-CD}{2} = \frac{AC-(AB-BC)}{2} = \frac{P-2AB}{2} = \frac{1}{2}P - AB$. Hence, by substitution, $AB \times BC : (\frac{1}{2}P - AB)(\frac{1}{2}P - BC) :: R^2 : S^2, \frac{1}{2}B$.

The eight preceding theorems contain the grounds of trigonometrical calculation. A triangle has only five essential or variable parts—the three sides and two angles, the remaining angle being merely supplemental. Now, it is a general principle, that, three of those parts being given, the rest may be thence determined. But the right angled triangle has necessarily one known angle; and, in consequence of this, the opposite side is deducible from the containing sides. In right angled triangles, therefore, the number of essential parts is reduced to four, any two of which being the assigned, the others may be found.

PROP. XV. PROB.

Two variable parts of a right angled triangle being given, to find the rest.

This problem divides itself into four distinct cases, according to the different combination of the data.

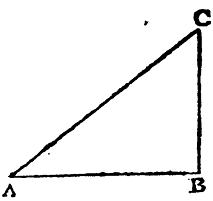
1. When the hypotenuse and a side are given.

2. When the two sides containing the right angle are given.

3. When the hypotenuse and an angle are given.

4. When either of the sides and an angle are given.

The first and third cases are solved by the application of Proposition 7, and the second and fourth cases receive their solution from Proposition 8. It may be proper, however, to exhibit the several analogies in a tabular form.



Case.	Given.	Sought.	SOLUTION.
I	AC, AB	A, or C, BC	AC : AB : : R : S, C, or Cos, A. R : S, A : : AC : BC.
II	AB, BC	A, or C AC.	AB : BC : : R : T, A, or Cot, C. Cos, A : R : : AB : AC, or R : Sec, A : : AB : AC.
III	AC A	AB BC	R : Cos, A : : AC : AB. R : S, A : : AC : BC.
IV	AB, A	BC AC	R : T, A : : AB : BC. Cos, A : R : : AB : AC, or R : Sec, A : : AB : AC.

In the first and second cases, BC or AC might also be deduced, by the mere application of Prop. 14. Book II. of the Elements: For $AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$, or $AC = \sqrt{(AB^2 + BC^2)}$

and $BC^2 = AC^2 - AB^2 = (AC + AB)(AC - AB)$,
or $BC = \sqrt{(AC + AB)(AC - AB)}$.

Cor. Hence the first case admits of a simple approximation. For, by the 2d corollary to Proposition 6, it appears that, AC being made the radius, $2AC + AB$ is to $3AC$, as the side BC is to the arc which measures its opposite angle CAB, or alternately $2AC + AB$ is to BC, as 3AC to the arc corresponding to BC. But the radius is equal to an arc of $57^\circ\ 17'\ 44''\ 48'''$, or $57\frac{1}{3}^\circ$ nearly; wherefore 3AC is to the arc which corresponds to BC, as $3 \times 57\frac{1}{3}^\circ$, or 172°, to the number of degrees contained in the angle CAB, and consequently $2AC + AB : BC :: 172^\circ :$ the expression of the angle at A, or $AC + \frac{1}{2}AB : BC :: 86^\circ :$ number of degrees in the angle at A.

This approximation will be the more correct, when the side opposite to the required angle becomes small in comparison with the hypotenuse; but the quantity of error can never amount to 4 minutes.

PROP. XVI. PROB.

Three variable parts of an oblique angled triangle being given, to find the other two.

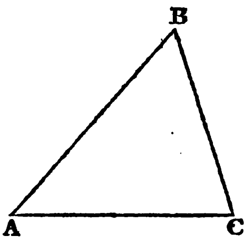
This general problem includes three distinct cases, each of which again is branched into two subordinate divisions.

1. When all the three sides are given.

2. When two sides and an angle are given; which angle may either be contained by these sides, or subtended by one of them.

3. When a side and two of the angles are given.

The first case admits of four different solutions, derived from Propositions 11, 12, 13, and 14, and which have their several advantages. The second case, consisting of two branches, is resolved by the application of propositions 9 and 10; and the solution of the third case flows immediately from the former of these propositions.



Case.		Given.	Sought.	SOLUTION.	
1.		AB, BC, and AC.	B	$AB \times BC : (\frac{1}{2}P - AB)(\frac{1}{2}P - BC) :: R^2 : S^2, \frac{1}{2} B.$	1
				$\frac{1}{2}P(\frac{1}{2}P - AC) : (\frac{1}{2}P - AB)(\frac{1}{2}P - BC) :: R^2 : T^2, \frac{1}{2} B.$	2
				$AB \times BC : \frac{1}{2}P(\frac{1}{2}P - AC) :: R^2 : Cos^2, \frac{1}{2} B.$	3
				$2 AB \times BC : AB^2 + BC^2 - AC^2 :: R : Cos, B.$	4
I.	1	AB, BC, and C.	A, and AC.	AB : BC : : S,C : S,A ; whence B, and	5
				S,C : S,B : : AB : AC.	6
	2	AB, BC, and B.	A, or C, and AC.	$AB + BC : AB - BC :: Cot. \frac{1}{2} B :: Cot. \overline{A + \frac{1}{2}B}$, or — $Cot, \overline{C - \frac{1}{2} B}$.	7
				$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} AB : BC :: R : T, b; \text{ and} \\ R : T, \overline{45^\circ - b} :: Cot. \frac{1}{2} B : Cot, \overline{A + \frac{1}{2} B}, \\ \text{or} - Cot, \overline{C - \frac{1}{2}B}. \end{array} \right.$	8
				S, A : S,B : : AB : AC, or	9
				$AC = \sqrt{(AB^2 + BC^2 - 2AB \times BC \times Cos, B.)}$	10
II.		AB, A, B, and thence C.	BC	S,C : SA : : AB : BC.	11
			AC	S,C : SB : : AB : AC.	12

For the resolution of the first Case, the analogy set down first, is on the whole the most convenient, particularly if the angle sought do not approach to two right angles. The second analogy may be applied through a wider extent, but is liable in practice to some irregularity, when the angle sought becomes very obtuse. The third and fourth analogies, especially the latter, are not adapted for the calculation of very acute angles; they will, however, answer the best when the angle sought is obtuse. It is to be observed, that the cosines of an angle and of its supplement are the same, only placed in opposite directions; and hence the second term of the analogy, or the difference of $AB^2 + BC^2$ from AC^2, is in excess or defect, according as the angle at B is acute or obtuse.

These remarks are founded on the unequal variation of the sine and tangent, corresponding to the uniform increase of an arc. Thus, suppose the arc A, to receive a small addition a; then by $S,\overline{A+a} = S,A + \text{Cos}.\, a + \text{Cos},\, A + S,a$, or, since Cos, a must approach extremely near to the radius, $S,\overline{A+a} - S,A = \text{Cos},\, A + S,a$ very nearly. Wherefore the variation of the sine of an arc is proportional to its cosine, and consequently, in the vicinity of the quadrant, the slightest alteration in the value of a sine would occasion a material change in the arc itself. Again, by Prop. 4, $T,\overline{A+a} = \frac{T,A+T,a}{1-T,A+T,a}$, or nearly $T,A+T,a+T^2,A.T,a$, and $T,\overline{A+a} - T,A = T,a\,(1+T^2,A)$; whence the variation of the tangent, is proportional to the square of the secant, and must therefore increase with extreme rapidity as the arc approaches to a quadrant.

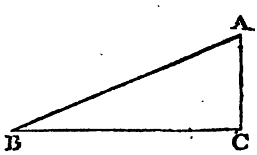
The first part of Case II. is ambiguous, for an arc and its supplement have the same sine. This ambiguity, however, is removed if the character of the triangle, as acute or obtuse, be previously known.

For the solution of the second part of Case II. the first analogy is the most usual, but the double analogy is the best adapted for logarithms. The direct expression for the side subtending the given angle is very commodious, where logarithms are not employed.

PROP. XVII. PROB.

Given the horizontal distance of an object and its angle of elevation, to find its height and absolute distance.

Let the angle CAB, which an object A makes at the station B, with an horizontal line, and also the distance BC of a perpendicular AC, to find that perpendicular, and the hypotenusal or aërial distance BA.



In the right angled triangle BCA, the radius is to the tangent of the angle at B as AB to AC, and the radius is to the secant of the angle at B, or the cosine of the angle at B is to the radius, as AB to BC.

PROP. XVIII. PROB.

Given the acclivity of a line, to find its corresponding vertical and horizontal length.

In the preceding figure, the angle CBA and the hypotenusal distance BA being given to find the height and the horizontal distance of the extremity A.

The triangle BCA being right angled, the radius is to the sine of the angle CBA as BA to AC, and the radius is to the cosine of CBA as BA to BC.

If the acclivity be small, and A denote the measure of that angle in minutes; then $AC = BA \times \frac{A}{3438}$ nearly. But the expression for AC, will be rendered more accurate, by subtracting from it, as thus found, the quantity $\frac{AC^3}{BA^2}$.

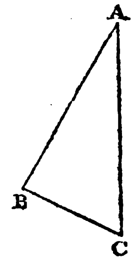
In most cases when CBA is a small angle, the horizontal distance may be computed with sufficient exactness, by deducting $\frac{AC^2}{2BA}$, or $BA \times A^2 \times .000,000,0423$, from the hypotenusal distance.

PROP. XIX. PROB.

Given the interval between two stations, and the direction of an object viewed from them, to find its distance from each.

Let BC be given, with the angles ABC and ACB, to calculate AB and AC.

In the triangle CBA, the angles ABC and ACB being given, the remaining or supplemental angle BAC is thence given; and consequently, S,BAC : S,ACB :: BC : AB, and S,BAC :: S,ABC : BC : AC.

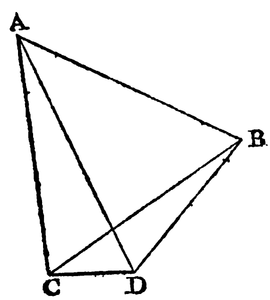


PROP. XX. PROB.

Given the interval between two stations, and the directions of two remote objects viewed from them in the same plane, to find the mutual distance, and relative position, of those objects.

Let the points A,B represent the two objects, and C,D the two stations from which these are observed; the interval CD being measured, and also the angles CDA,CDB at the first station, and DCB,DCA at the second; and it is thence required to determine the transverse distance AB, and its direction.

Find, by the last problem, the distances AC and BC of both objects from one of the stations C; then the contained angle ACB, or the excess of DCA above DCB, being likewise given, the angles at the base AB of the triangle BCA, and the base itself, may be calculated, from the analogies exhibited for the solution of the second branch of Case II. For AC + BC : AC — BC :: Cot, ½ACB : Cot, $\frac{1}{2}\overline{ACB+CAB}$, and thus the angle CAB



is found; or, more conveniently by two successive operations, AC : BC : : R : T,b, and R : T,$\overline{45°-b}$ :: Cot, ½ACB : : Cot, ½$\overline{ACB + CAB}$. Now, S,CAB : : S,ACB : : BC : AB, or AB = $\sqrt{(AC^2+BC^2-2AC\times BC\times Cos,ACB)}$. Again, the inclination of AB to CD is evidently the supplement of the two interior angles CAB and DCA.

Cor. Hence the converse of this problem is readily solved. Suppose two remote objects A and B, whose mutual distance is already known, are observed from the stations C and D, and it were thence required to determine the interval CD. Assume unit to denote CD, and calculate AB according to the same scale of measures; the actual distance AB being then divided by that result, will give CD: For the several triangles which combine to form the quadrilateral figure CABD, are evidently given in species.

In this and the following problem, the angles on the ground are supposed to be taken by means of a theodolite. If the sextant be employed for that purpose, such angles, when oblique, must be reduced by calculation to their projection on the horizontal plane. This reduction, however, belongs properly to Spherical Trigonometry.

In surveying an extensive country, a base is first carefully measured, and the prominent distant objects are all connected with it, by a series of triangles. To avoid, in practice, the multiplication of errors, these triangles should be chosen, as nearly as possible, equilateral.

PROP. XXI. PROB.

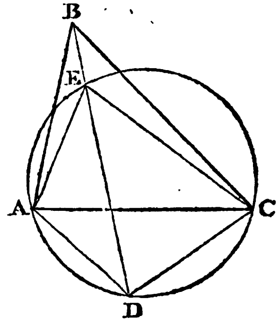
The mutual distances of three remote objects being given, with the angles which they subtend at a station in the same plane, to find the relative place of that station.

Let the three points A, B, and C, and the angles ADB and BDC which they form at a fourth point D, be given; to determine the position of that point.

Through D and the extreme points A and C describe a circle, draw DB cutting the circumference in E, and join AE and CE.

1. In the triangle AEC, the side AC, and the angles ACE and CAE, which are equal (III. 20. El.) to ADB and BDC, being given, the side AE is found by Case III.

2. All the sides of the triangle ABC being given, the angle CAB is found by Case I.



3. In the triangle BAE, the sides AB and AE are given, and their contained angle EAB, or the difference of CAE and CAB, are given, whence, by Case II., the angle ABE or ABD is found.

4. Lastly, in the triangle DAB, the side AB and the angles ABD and ADB being given, the side AD or BD is found by Case III., and consequently the position of

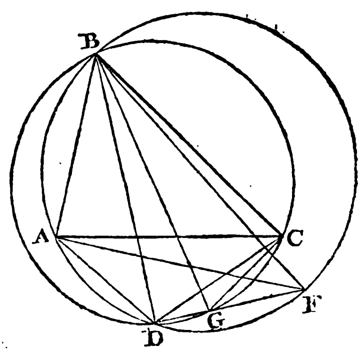
the point D, with respect to A and B is determined. By a like process, the relative position of D and C is deduced; or CD may be calculated by Case II. from the sides AC,AD, and the angle ADC, which are given in the triangle CAD.

It is obvious that the calculation will fail, if the points B and E should happen to coincide. In fact, the circle then passing through B, any point D whatever in the opposite arc ADC will answer the conditions required, since the angles ADB, and BDC, being now in the same segment, must remain unaltered.

Otherwise thus.

On AB describe (III. 31. El.) a segment of a circle ADB containing an angle equal to that subtended by the objects A and B, and on BC describe another segment BDC containing an angle equal to that subtended by the objects B and C; the point D, where the two circumferences intersect, will evidently mark the station required.

Join AD,BD,CD, draw the diameters BF,BG, and join AF,CG,DF and DG. The angles BDF and BDG, thus occupying semicircles, are right angles, and therefore DGF forms but one straight line. Hence these successive calculations.



1. All the sides of

the triangle BAC being given, the angle ABC is found by Case I.

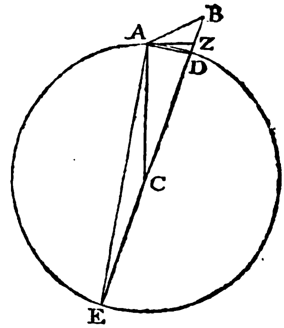
2. In the right angled triangles BAF, BCG, the sides AB,BC, and the angles AFB,BGC, which are equal (III. 20. El.) to ADB,BDC, being given, the hypotenuses BF,BG, or the diameters of the circles are thence found.

3. In the triangle FBG the two sides BF,BG being now given, with the angle FBG=CBG—CBF=CBG—ABC+ABF = BAC + BCA—ADC, the angle BFG is found by Case II.

4. Lastly, in the right angled triangle BDF, the hypotenuse BF, and the angle BFD or BFG being given, the side BD is found; and since the angle FBD is also known, the position of the point D is assigned.

Should the two circles have the same centre, their circumferences must obviously coincide, and therefore every point in the containing arc will answer the conditions required. When this porismatic or indeterminate case of the problem occurs, the distances AB and BC become chords of the corresponding observed angles, and are consequently, by Proposition 1, proportional to the sines of those angles.

Scholium. The vertical angles employed in the mensuration of heights, being estimated from the varying direction of the level or the plummet, will evidently, when the stations are distant, require some correction. Let the points A and B represent two remote objects, and C their



centre of gravitation; with the radius CA describe a circle, draw CB cutting the circumference in D and E, and join EA and AD. The converging lines AC and BC will indicate the direction of the plummet at A and B, the intercepted arc AD, will trace the contour of a quiescent fluid, and the tangent AZ, being applied at A, will mark the line of the horizon from that station. Wherefore the vertical angle observed at A is only ZAB, which is less than the true angle DAB, by the exterior angle DAZ. But (III. 29. El.) DAZ being equal to the angle AED in the alternate segment, is (III. 19. El.) equal to half the angle ACD at the centre. Hence the true vertical angle at any station will be found, by adding to the observed angle half the measure of the intercepted arc; and this measure depending on the curvature of the earth, which is neither uniform nor quite regular, must be deduced, for each particular place, from the length of the corresponding degree of latitude.

Such nicety, however, is very seldom required. It will be sufficiently accurate in practice to assume the mean quantities, and to consider the earth as a globe, whose circumference is 24,856 miles, and diameter 7,912. The arc of a minute on the meridian being, therefore, equal to 6076 feet, the correction to be added to the observed vertical angle must amount to one second, for every 69 yards contained in the intervening distance.

The quantity of depression ZD below the horizon is

hence easily computed; for (III. 36. El.) $AZ^2=EZ.ZD$, or very nearly $ED.ZD$; and consequently the depression of an object is proportional to the square of its distance AZ. In the space of one mile, this depression will amount to to $\frac{5280}{7912}$ parts of a foot; and generally, therefore, it may be expressed in feet, by two-thirds of the square of the distance in miles.

But the effect of the earth's curvature is modified by another cause, arising from optical deception. An object is never seen by us in its true position, but in the direction of the ray of light which conveys the impression. Now the luminous particles, in traversing the atmosphere, are, by the force of superior attraction, refracted or bent continually towards the perpendicular, as they penetrate the lower and denser *strata*; and consequently they describe a curved track, of which the last portion, or its tangent, indicates the apparent elevated situation of a remote point. This trajectory, suffering almost a regular inflexure, may be considered as very nearly an arc of a circle, which has for its radius six times the radius of our globe. Hence, to correct the error occasioned by refraction, it will only be requisite to diminish the effects of the earth's curvature by one sixth part, or to deduct, from the vertical angles, the twelfth part of the measure of the intervening terrestrial arc. The quantity of horizontal refraction however, as it depends on the density of the air at the surface, is extremely variable, especially in our unsteady climate.

NOTES

AND

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Note I.—Pages 1, 2, and 3.

The primary objects which Geometry contemplates are, from their nature, incapable of decomposition. No wonder that ingenuity has only wasted its efforts, to define such elementary notions. It appears more philosophical to invert the usual procedure, and endeavour to trace the successive steps by which the mind arrives at the principles of the science. Though no words can paint a simple sound, this may yet be rendered intelligible, by describing the mode of its articulation.

The founders of mathematical learning among the Greeks were in general tinctured with a portion of mysticism, transmitted from Pythagoras, and cherished in the school of Plato. Geometry became thus infected at its source. By the later Platonists, who flourished in the Museum of Alexandria, it was regarded as a pure intellectual science, far sublimed above the grossness of material contact. Such visionary metaphysics could not impair the solidity of the superstructure, but did contribute to perpetuate some misconceptions, and to give a wrong turn to philosophical speculation. It is full time to restore the sobriety of reason. Geometry, like the other sciences which are not concerned about the operations of mind, rests ultimately on external observation. But those ultimate facts are so few, so distinct, and obvious, that the subsequent train of reasoning is safely pursued to unlimited extent,

without ever appealing again to the evidence of the senses. The science of Geometry, therefore, owes its perfection to the extreme simplicity of its basis, and derives no visible advantage from the artificial mode of its construction. The axioms are now rejected as totally useless, and rather apt to produce obscurity.

The term *surface*, in Latin *superficies*, and in Greek ἐπιφάνεια, conveys a very just idea, as marking the mere expansion which a body presents to our sense of sight. *Line*, or γραμμα, signifies a *stroke;* and, in reference to the operation of writing, it expresses the boundary or contour of a figure. A straight line has two radical properties, which are distinctly marked in different languages. It holds the same undeviating course,—and it traces the shortest distance between its extreme points. The first property is expressed by the epithet *recta* in Latin, and *droite* in French; and the last seems intimated by the English term *straight*, which is evidently derived from the verb, *to stretch*. Accordingly Proclus defines a straight line as *stretched* between its extremities—ἡ ἐπ᾽ ακρων τεταμενη.

The word *point* in every language signifies a *mark*, thus indicating its essential character, of denoting position. In Greek, the term στιγμα was first used; but, this being degraded in its application, the diminutive σημειον, formed from σημα, a *signal*, came afterwards to be preferred. The neatest and most comprehensive description of a *point* was given by Pythagoras, who defined it "a monad having position." Plato represents the *hypostasis*, or constitution of a point, as *adamantine;* finely alluding to the opinion which then prevailed, that the diamond is absolutely indivisible, the art of cutting this refractory substance being the discovery of modern ages.

The conception of an *angle* is one of the most difficult perhaps in the whole compass of Geometry. The term corresponds, in most languages, to *corner*, and therefore exhibits a most imperfect

picture of the object. Apollonius defined it to be "the collection of space about a point." Euclid makes an angle to consist in "the mutual inclination, or κλισις, of its containing lines,"—a definition which is obscure and altogether defective. In strictness, it can apply only to acute angles, nor does it give any idea of angular magnitude; though this really is as capable of augmentation as the magnitude of lines themselves. It is curious to observe the shifts to which the author of the Elements is hence obliged to have recourse. This remark is particularly exemplified in the 20th and 21st Propositions of his Third Book. Had Euclid been acquainted with Trigonometry, which was only begun to be cultivated in his time, he would certainly have taken a more enlarged view of the nature of an angle.

In the definition of *reverse angle*, I find that I have been anticipated by Stevin of Bruges. It is satisfactory to have the countenance of such respectable authority.

Note II.—Pages 8 and 9.

A *square* is commonly described as having *all* its angles right. This definition errs however by excess, for it contains more than what is necessary. The original Greek, and even the Latin version, by employing the general terms ὀρθογώνιον, and *rectangulum*, dexterously, avoided that objection. The word *rhombus* comes from ῥεμβεῖν, *to sling*, as the figure represents only a quadrangular frame disjointed.

It scarcely deserves notice, but I will anticipate the objection which may be brought against me, for having changed the definition of *trapezium*. The fact is, that I have only restricted the word to its appropriate meaning, from which Euclid had, according to Proclus, taken the liberty to depart. In the original, it signifies *a table*; and hence we learn the prevailing form of the tables used

among the Greeks. Indeed the ancients would appear to have had some predilection for the figure of the trapezium, since the doors now seen in the ruins of the temples at Athens, are not exactly oblong, but wider below than above.

Language is capable of more precision, in proportion as it becomes copious. As I have confined the epithet *right* to angles, and *straight* to lines, I have likewise appropriated the word *diagonal* to rectilineal figures, and *diameter* to the circle. In like manner, I have restricted the term *arc* to a portion of the circumference, its synonym *arch* being assigned to architecture. For the same reason, I have adopted the term *equivalent*, from the celebrated Legendre, whose *Elements de Geometrie* is one of the ablest works that has appeared in our times. These distinctions evidently tend to promote perspicuity, which is the great object of an elementary treatise.

Note III.—Page 22.

The proposition here demonstrated is commonly assumed as an axiom. It is indeed forced upon our earliest observation, being suggested by the stretching of a cord, and other familiar occurrences in life. But thus to multiply principles, appears quite unphilosophical. The two radical properties of a straight line— the congruity of its parts—and its shortness of trace—are distinct, though connected. The latter is shown to be the necessary consequence of the former; but it would be impossible, by any direct process, to infer the uniformity of straight lines, from their marking out the nearest routes.

In the demonstration, I could not avoid introducing the consideration of limits. This will occasion, I presume, no material difficulty, since the reasoning is the same as that by which our most familiar conceptions are gradually expanded.

Note IV.—Page 27.

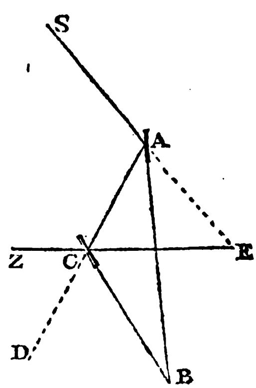
This proposition, which is of considerable utility, was wanting to complete the relation of triangles. But, to constitute the same affection, it is besides requisite that the characteristic angles should have a like position.

Note V.—Page 28.

The subject of parallel lines has exercised the ingenuity of modern geometers; for Euclid had only sought to evade the difficulty, by styling the fundamental proposition an axiom. The investigation now given, seems the best adapted to the natural progress of discovery. It is almost ridiculous to scruple about the idea of motion, which I have employed for the sake of clearness. But even that futile objection might be obviated, by considering merely the successive positions of the straight line extending through the given point.

Note VI.—Page 34.

That invaluable instrument, Hadley's quadrant, is founded on the second corollary, annexed as an obvious consequence of the proposition. A ray of light SA, from the sun, impinging against the mirror at A, is reflected at an angle equal to its incidence; and now striking the half-silvered glass at C, it is again reflected to E, where the eye likewise receives, through the transparent part of that glass, a direct ray from the boundary of the horizon. Hence the triangle AEC has its exterior angle ECD and one of its interior angles CAE, respectively double of the exterior angle BCD and the interior angle CAB, of the tri-



6. In Prop. 25. let the two lines be denoted by a and b; then $a^2+b^2=\frac{1}{2}(a+b)^2+\frac{1}{2}(a-b)^2=2\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2+2\left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)$.

7. In Prop. 26. let the whole line be denominated by a, and its greater segment by x; then $x^2=a(a-x)$, and $x^2+ax=a^2$, whence $x=\pm\sqrt{\frac{5a^2}{4}}-\frac{a}{2}=\pm a(\sqrt{\frac{5}{4}}-\frac{1}{2})$. Hence, if unit represent the whole line, the greater segment is .61803398428, &c. and the smaller segment .38196601572, &c.

From Cor. 1. an extremely neat approximation is likewise obtained. Assuming the segments of the divided line as at first equal and denoted each by 1, these successive numbers will result from their continued summation:

1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, &c.

If the original line, therefore, contained 144 equal parts, its greater segment would include 89, and its smaller segment 55 of these parts very nearly.

Note XI.—Page 68.

This proposition will furnish another convenient method of discovering the numbers which represent the sides of a triangle: For since $DE^2=2AD\times CE$, it is evident that $\frac{1}{2}DE^2=AD\times CE$; and consequently, expressing DE by a whole number, and resolving $\frac{1}{2}DE^2$ into the factors AD and CE, AD+DE and CE+DE will represent the two sides, and AD+CE+DE the hypotenuse, of a right-angled triangle. Thus, if 2 be taken, the factors of half its square are 1 and 2, which produce the numbers 3, 4, and 5. Again, if 4 be assumed, the factors are 2 and 4, or 1 and 8; whence result these numbers, 6, 8 and 10, or 5, 12 and 13. In this way, a very great variety of numbers can be found, to express the sides of a right-angled triangle.

Note XII.—Page 97.

The demonstration of this beautiful proposition may be somewhat simplified. Because the arcs BC and CD are equal to EF and FG, the chords BE, CF, and DG are parallel; and because the arcs BC and CD are equal to AE and EF, the chords BA, CE and DF are likewise parallel. Wherefore HBEI and ICFD are rhomboids.

Note XIII.—Page 98.

This theorem is the result of one of the analyses which the ancient geometers have given of the celebrated problem of the trisection of an angle. If a straight line could be drawn through the point E, having its exterior portion AD equal to the radius of the circle, the arc AB would be the third part of FE. But to effect this construction, requires the higher geometry, and it gave occasion to the discovery of the *conchoid*, a curve first proposed by Nicomedes. Some very limited cases, being capable of an elementary solution, suggested to Apollonius the problem of *Inclinations*.

Note XIV.—Page 143.

Such are the only regular polygons known to the Greeks. The inscription of all the rest has for ages been supposed absolutely to transcend the powers of elementary geometry. But a curious and most unexpected discovery was lately made by Mr Gauss, who has demonstrated, in a work entitled *Disquisitiones Arithmeticæ* and published at Brunswic in 1801, that certain very

perties themselves are extremely simple, and may be regarded as only the exposition of the same principle under different aspects. The various transformations of which analogies are susceptible, exactly resemble the changes usually effected in the reduction of equations.

According to Euclid, " The first of four magnitudes is said to have the same ratio to the second which the third has to the fourth, when any equimultiples whatsoever of the first and third being taken, and any equimultiples whatsoever of the second and fourth; if the multiple of the first be less than that of the second, the multiple of the third is also less than that of the fourth; or, if the multiple of the first be equal to that of the second, the multiple of the third is also equal to that of the fourth; or, if the multiple of the first be greater than that of the second, the multiple of the third is also greater than that of the fourth." This definition, however perplexed and verbose, is yet easily derived from that which appears to furnish the simplest and most natural criterion of proportionality. For, let $A : B :: C : D$; it was stated as a fundamental principle, that, if the mth part of A be contained n times in B, the mth part of C will likewise be contained n times in D. Whence $nA = mB$, and $nC = mD$; which is the basis of Euclid's definition. But when the terms are incommensurable, such equality cannot *absolutely* subsist. In this case, no single trial would be sufficient for ascertaining proportionality. It is required that, *every* multiple whatever, mA, being greater or less than nB, the corresponding multiple, mC, shall likewise be constantly greater or less than nD. Actually to apply the definition is therefore impossible; nor does it even assist us at all in directing our search. In the natural mode of proceeding, by assuming successively a smaller divisor, we are, at each time, brought nearer to the incommensurable limit. But Euclid's famous definition leaves us to grope at random after its object, and to seek our

escape, by having recourse to some auxiliary train of reasoning or induction.

The author of the Elements has likewise given what Dr Barrow calls a *metaphysical* definition of ratio: "Ratio is a mutual relation of two *magnitudes* of the same kind to one another, in respect of *quantity*." This sentence, as it now stands, appears either tautological, or altogether devoid of meaning; and Dr Simson, anxious for the credit of Euclid, considers it, in his usual manner, as the interpolation of some unskilful editor. I am inclined to think, however, that the passage will admit of a version which is not only intelligible, but conveys a most correct idea of the nature of ratio. The original runs thus: Λογος εστι δυο μεγεθῶν ὁμογενῶν ἡ κατα Πηλικότητα προς αλληλα ποια σχεσις. Now the term πηλικος, on which the whole evidently hinges, though commonly rendered *quantus*, may be translated *quotus*, as expressing either *magnitude* or *multitude*. In its primitive sense, it probably denoted *number*, and came afterwards to signify *quantity*, as this word itself has, in the French language, undergone the reverse process. In confirmation of this opinion, it may be stated, that the relative term ἡλικια properly denotes *age*, and thence *stature* or *size*. According to this interpretation, therefore, "Ratio is a certain mutual habitude of two homogeneous magnitudes with respect to *quotity*, or numerical composition."

Note XVII.—Page 182.

It will be proper here to notice the several methods adopted in practice, for the minute subdivision of lines. The earliest of these—the *diagonal scale*—depending immediately on the proposition in the text, is of the most extensive use, and constituted the first improvement on astronomical instruments.

Nunez, or Nonius, proposed one more complicated. He placed a number of parallel scales, differently divided, and forming a re-

gular descending gradation. An index laid any where across these scales would, therefore, cut at least one of them at some division, and hence the intercepted space would be expressed by a corresponding fraction.

But the method of subdivision afterwards introduced by Vernier, is much simpler and far more ingenious. It is founded on the difference of two approximating scales, one of which is moveable. Thus, if a space equal to $n-1$ parts on the limb of the instrument be divided into n parts, these evidently will each of them be smaller than the former, by the nth part of a division. Wherefore, on shifting forward this parasite scale, the quantity of aberration will diminish at each successive division, till a new coincidence obtains, and then the number of those divisions on that scale will mark the fractional value of the displacement.

Note XVIII.—Pages 214-216.

This scholium was added chiefly, for the purpose of explaining the construction of that very useful instrument, the *Pantagraph*.

Note XIX.—Pages 221-223.

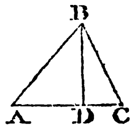
The curious properties of the *crescents*, or *lunulæ*, were discovered by Hippocrates of Chios, in his attempts to square the circle. The second corollary which I have annexed, contains a beautiful extension of the same principle, first suggested by Mr Lawson, and explained in Dr Hutton's *Mathematical Tracts*.

Note XX.—Page 224.

This elegant theorem admits of an algebraical investigation. Put $AC=a$, $AB=b$, $BC=c$, and let s denote the semiperimeter,

and A the area of the triangle; then, by Prop. 31. Book II., $2AC \cdot CD = a^2 + c^2 - b^2$, consequently

$CD = \frac{a^2+c^2-b^2}{2a}$, and $BD^2 = BC^2 - CD^2 =$



$c^2 - \left(\frac{a^2+c^2-b^2}{2a}\right)^2$, and therefore, by

Prop. 7. Book II. $A^2 = \frac{AC^2 \cdot BD^2}{4} = \frac{4a^2c^2 - (a^2+c^2-b^2)^2}{16}$.

But this expression, consisting of the difference of two squares, may be decomposed, by Prop. 23. Book II.; whence $A^2 =$

$$\frac{2ac+a^2+c^2-b^2}{4} \cdot \frac{2ac-a^2-c^2+b^2}{4} = \frac{(a+c)^2-b^2}{4} \cdot \frac{b^2-(a-c)^2}{4};$$

and, decomposing these factors again,

$$A^2 = \frac{a+b+c}{2} \cdot \frac{a-b+c}{2} \cdot \frac{a+b-c}{2} \cdot \frac{-a+b+c}{2}.$$

Now $\frac{a+b+c}{2} = s$, $\frac{a-b+c}{2} = s-b$, $\frac{a+b-c}{2} = s-c$,

and $\frac{-a+b+c}{2} = s-a$; wherefore we obtain, by substitution,

$A = \sqrt{(s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c))}$.

This most useful proposition was known to the Arabians, but seems to have been re-invented in Europe, about the latter part of the fifteenth century.

Note XXI.—Pages 226–228.

This ingenious and concise approximation to the quadrature of the circle was first published, at Padua, in the year 1668, by my illustrious predecessor James Gregory. It is the more deserving of attention, as it seems to have led that original author to the invention of the method of series.

Note XXII.—Pages 230–256.

The Appendix to the books of Geometry cannot fail, by it novelty and singular beauty, to prove highly interesting. The first part is taken from a scarce tract of Schooten, who was Professor of Mathematics at Leyden, early in the seventeenth century. But the second and most important part is chiefly selected from a most ingenious work of Mascheroni, a celebrated Italian mathematician, which in 1798 was translated into French, under the title of *Geometrie du Compas*. It will be perceived, however, that I have adapted the arrangement to my own views, and have demonstrated the propositions more strictly in the spirit of the ancient geometry.

Note XXIII.—Pages 259–398.

These three books are designed to exhibit a distinct and comprehensive view of the mode by which the Greek geometers conducted their Analysis. For that purpose, I have chosen a series of propositions, at first extremely simple, but gradually rising in difficulty as the train of investigation proceeds. The first book, being rather of a miscellaneous nature, is drawn from a variety of sources. The 21st and 22d Propositions contain the analyses of the two problems so famous in the Platonic school—*the trisection of an angle*—and *the duplication of the cube*—which led immediately to the cultivation of the higher geometry. The concluding theorem is the only one supplied by the *Data* of Euclid.

In the second and third books, I have endeavoured to comprise all that relates to the ancient analysis in its most improved state, as extended by the labours of Apollonius and his illustrious contemporaries. Without omitting any material proposition, I have yet avoided the prolixity of pursuing in detail their numerous

subdivisions. Our system of modern education, embracing such a wide range, would scarcely indeed afford leisure for indulging in those easy tasks.

The method of analysis, so deservedly valued in the ancient schools, was regularly studied after the Elements of Geometry. According to Pappus, it consisted of eight distinct treatises:

1. The *Data*—περὶ τῶν δεδομένων—in a single book of considerable length, but containing propositions only of the very simplest kind.

2. The *Section of Ratio*—περὶ λόγου ἀποτομῆς—in two books, which Dr Halley, with much sagacity and incredible labour, restored, from a MS. in the Bodleian library. The object of the tract was the solution of this problem, branched out into a multitude of cases, and marked with various limitations: "Through a given point to draw a straight line intercepting segments on two straight lines which are given in position, from given points and in a given ratio." It forms the first four propositions of the second book.

3. The *Section of Space*—περὶ χωρίου ἀποτομῆς—in two books. Of these no vestige remained; but Dr Halley, guided by a few hints from Pappus, very successfully exerted his ingenuity in divining the original structure.It was proposed—" Thro' a given point, to draw a straight line cutting off segments from given points on two straight lines given in position, and which shall contain a rectangle equal to a given space." This occupies the propositions from the 5th to the 10th inclusively of the second book.

4. The *Determinate Section*—περὶ διωρισμένης τομῆς—in two books. These also were lost; but Dr Simson, assisted by the attempts of Schooten, has restored them in the most luminous manner. They form Prop. 10—19. Book II.

5. *Inclinations*—περι νεύσεων—in two books. It was proposed —" To insert a straight line, of a given magnitude, and tending

to a given point, between two lines which are given in position." This problem was restored by Marinus Ghetaldus, a patrician of Ragusa; and other investigations were given by Hugo de Omerique, in his ingenious treatise on Geometrical Analysis, printed at Cadiz in 1698. Two solutions of the case of the rhombus, remarkable for their elegance, appeared in the posthumous works of Huygens, who was imbued with the finest taste for the ancient geometry. I have condensed the whole in Prop. 20—26. Book II.

6. *Tangencies*—περὶ ἐπαφῶν—in two books. Of this tract only some lemmas were preserved, which enabled the celebrated Vieta in a great measure to restore it. Some of the cases which had escaped him were solved by Marinus Ghetaldus; and farther improvements were made in 1612, by Alexander Anderson of Aberdeen, an ancestor of the Gregorys. The general problem occupies the remainder of the second book.

7. *Plane Loci*—περὶ τόπων ἐπιπέδων—in two books. The object was—"To find the conditions under which a point, varying in its position, is yet confined to trace a straight line or a circle given in position." This beautiful train of investigation was partly restored by Schooten in 1650, though after a sort of algebraical form. The ingenious Fermat succeeded in bestowing greater simplicity on the subject. But all these attempts have been eclipsed by Dr Simson, whose treatise *De Locis Planis*, published at Glasgow in 1749, is a model of geometrical strictness and elegance. The first 17 propositions of the third Book include all the principal theorems, which I have selected with additions.

The six preceding branches of analysis were all the creation of Apollonius of Perge, the most assiduous and inventive of the Greek geometers.

8. *Porisms*—περὶ τῶν πορισμάτων—in three books, composed by Euclid. No trace of these now remains, except some obscure hints of Pappus, rendered still more perplexed by the corrupt and mutilated state of his text. The subject had long proved an

ænigma which it baffled the efforts of the ablest and most learned mathematicians to unravel. Fermat advanced some steps; but the honour of completing the discovery was reserved for our countryman Dr Simson, whose restoration of the Porisms was given to the scientific world in 1776, in a posthumous volume, printed at the expence of the late Earl Stanhope. From that work I have extracted what seemed the best suited to my purpose; and I have likewise availed myself of the judicious remarks and illustrations of my distinguished colleague, Professor Playfair. These porisms, with some additions, are contained in Prop. 18—25. Book III.

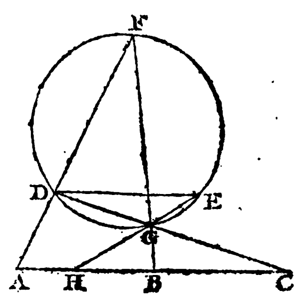
The remaining propositions of the third book relate to the subject of *Isoperimeters;* which I have treated with the conciseness of the moderns, without departing, I hope, from the spirit of the ancient geometry.

Note XXIV.—Page 276.

An extension of this proposition, omitted inadvertently in the text, is here supplied.

From two given points, to inflect straight lines to the circumference of a circle, such that the chord of their intercepted arc shall tend to a given point in the direction of the former.

Let it be required, from the points A and B, to inflect AF and BF, so that the chord DG produced shall meet the extension of AB in the point C.



Draw DE parallel to AC, join EG, and produce it to meet AB in H.

The angle BHG is equal to the alternate angle GED, which is equal (III. 20. El.) to GFD, and consequently the angles BHG and BFA are equal, and the triangles BGH and BAF are similar,

Wherefore GB : HB :: BA : BF and GB . BF = HB . BA; but the rectangle GB, BF is given, since it is equal to the square of a tangent drawn from B, and hence HB . BA is given, and the point H. The problem is thus reduced to Prop. 14. Book II. and only requires, from the points C and H, to inflect CD and HE, such that DE, the chord of their intercepted arc, may be parallel to HC.

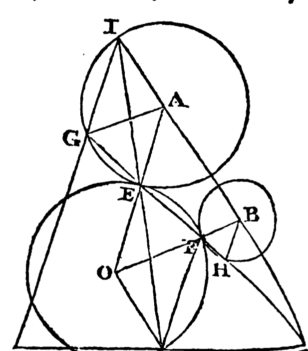
Note XXV.—Page 345.

The first of these three cases admits of a solution immediately derived from other principles. Thus, *Let it be required to describe a circle through the point C, and touching two given circles whose centres are A and B.*

ANALYSIS.

Join AB, and produce it to meet, in D, the extension of the straight line which connects E, F, the points of contact; join OA and OB, AG and BH, draw CEI, and produce IG and DC to meet in K.

The isosceles triangles EOF, EAG, and FBH, are evidently similar, and consequently AG is parallel to BF and AE to BH. Whence (VI. 2. El.) AE : BH :: AD : BD; and, this ratio being therefore given, the point D is given. Again, AG : BF :: DG : DF, and DG : DF :: DK : DC, for (III. 33 El.) IG is parallel to FC; consequently, DC being given, DK, and the point K, are given. Where-



fore, by the preceding note, the straight line GE, included by the

reflected lines KI and CI, and directed to the given point I, is given; hence AEO is given in position. Join OC, and the angle ECO, being equal (I. 8. El.) to CEO, is given; and consequently CO, and the centre O, are given.

COMPOSITION.

Make (VI. 3. El.) AE : BH :: AD : BD, join DC, make BH : AE :: DC : DK; and, from the points K and C, inflect KI and CI, by Note XXIV. such that GE shall tend to D, produce AE and CO, making the angle ECO equal to CEO; the intersection O is centre of the required circle.

For join AG, CF, OB, and BH. Because AE, or AG : BH, or BF :: AD : BD, and the triangles ADG and BDF have a common angle at D, they are (VI. 15. El.) similar; consequently AD : BD :: DG : DF :: DK : DC, and IG is parallel to FC; and therefore the circles touch at E. But the triangle, BFH, having its sides BF and BH parallel to AG and AE, the sides of the isosceles triangle GAE, must likewise be isosceles; wherefore the circles meet at F: And, since BH is parallel to EO, they must touch at that point. Again, the angle ECO being equal to CEO, the side OE is equal to OC; and consequently the circle described from O, and which touches at E and F, must also pass through C.

Note XXVI.—Page 404.

The French philosophers have, at the instance of Borda, lately proposed and adopted the centesimal division of the quadrant, as easier, more consistent, and better adapted to our scale of arithmetic. On that basis, they have also constructed their ingenious system of measures. The distance of the Pole from the Equator was determined with the most scrupulous accuracy, by a chain of triangles extending from Calais to Barcelona, and since prolonged to the

$-B$ for it in the last expression, and $S,A \times Cos,B - Cos,A \times S,B = R \times S,\overline{A-B}$.

2. In art. 1., for A substitute its complement; then $S,\overline{A+B} = S,\overline{90^\circ - A + B} = S,\overline{90^\circ + A - B} = Cos,\overline{A-B}$, and hence $Cos,A \times Cos,B + S,A \times S,B = R \times Cos,\overline{A-B}$.

4. In art. 2. likewise, substitute for A its complement, and the result will become $Cos,A \times Cos,B - S,A \times S,B = R \times Cos,\overline{A+B}$.

5. In art. 1., let $A=B$, and $2S,A \times Cos,A = R \times S,2A$.

6. In art. 4. let $A=B$, and $Cos^2,A - S^2,A = R \times Cos,2A$.

7. Suppose $L=A-B$, and $M=N=B$; then the general expression becomes $S,\overline{A-B} \times S,B + S,B \times S,\overline{A-B+2B} = S,\overline{A-B+B} \times S,2B$, or $S,B\,(S,\overline{A+B} + S,\overline{A-B}) = S,A \times S,2B$.

8. Since, from art. 5., $R \times S,2B = S,B \times 2\,Cos,B$, therefore, by combining this with the last result, $R(S,\overline{A+B} + S,\overline{A-B}) = S,A \times 2Cos,B$.

9. In the preceding article, for A substitute its complement, and $R(S,\overline{90^\circ - A + B} + S,\overline{90^\circ - A - B}) = Cos,A \times 2Cos,B$, or $R(Cos,\overline{A+B} = Cos,\overline{A-B}) = Cos,A \times 2Cos,B$.

10. In art. 8. change A and B for their complements, and $R(S,\overline{180^\circ - A - B} + S,-\overline{A+B}) = Cos,A \times 2\,S,B$, or $R(S,\overline{A+B} - S,\overline{A-B}) = Cos,A \times 2\,S,B$.

11. In art. 9. likewise, change A and B for their complements;

then $R(\text{Cos},\overline{180^{\circ}-A-B}+\text{Cos},\overline{-A+B}=S,A+2S,B$, or
$R(\text{Cos},\overline{A-B}-\text{Cos},\overline{A+B})=S,A\times 2S,B$.

12. In art. 10. transform A and B into $A+B$ and $A-B$, and consequently, for $A+B$ and $A-B$, substitute $2A$ and $2B$; then $R(S,2A-S,2B)=\text{Cos},\overline{A+B}+S,\overline{A-B}$, or $\frac{1}{2}R(S,2A-S,2B)=\text{Cos},\overline{A+B}\times S,\overline{A-B}$.

13. Make the same transformation in article 11., and
$R(\text{Cos},2B-\text{Cos},2A)=S,\overline{A+B}\times 2S,\overline{A-B}$, or
$\frac{1}{2}R(\text{Cos},2B-\text{Cos},2A)=S,\overline{A+B}\times S,\overline{A-B}$.

14. Lastly, suppose $L=N=B$, and $M=A-B$; then the general expression becomes, $S^2,B+S,\overline{A-B}\times S,\overline{A+B}=S^2,A$, or $S,\overline{A+B}\times S,\overline{A-B}=S^2,A-S^2,B$. But, by the preceding article, $\frac{1}{2}R(\text{Cos},2B-\text{Cos},2A)=S,\overline{A+B}\times S,\overline{A-B}$; whence $\frac{1}{2}R(\text{Cos},2B-\text{Cos},2A)=S^2,A-S^2,B$.

Note XXXI.—Page 414.

The general expression for the sine of the multiple arc was obtained by mere induction; but this mode of inference, in most cases so convenient, is perhaps not quite satisfactory. A complete investigation may be derived from the Theory of Functions.

On inspecting the successive formation of the sines of the multiple arcs, it appears, 1. That the odd powers only of s occur; 2. That the coefficient of the first term is always n, and the other coefficients are its functions of third, fifth, &c. orders; and 3. That since, in the case when $n=1$, the rest of the coefficients evidently vanish, those coefficients in general, as affected by opposite signs, must in each term produce a mutual balance.

$$nA = nS - n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}S^3 + n.\frac{n^2-1}{2.3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4.5}S^5 -, \text{ \&c. and}$$

$$A = S - \frac{n^2-1}{2.3}S^3 + \frac{n^2-1}{2.3}.\frac{n^2-9}{4.5}S^5 - \text{\&c.}$$

But, if n vanish from all the terms, the series will pass into a simpler form,

$$A = S + \frac{1}{2.3}S^3 + \frac{1.9}{2.3.4.5}S^5 + \frac{1.9.25}{2.3.4.5.6.7}S^7 +, \text{ \&c.}$$

By a similar investigation, the series for the cosine of an arc is likewise found.

$$\text{Cos,}A = 1 - \frac{A^2}{1.2} + \frac{A^4}{2.3.4} - \frac{A^6}{2.3.4.5.6} +, \text{ \&c.}$$

These series' are very commodious for the calculation of sines, since they converge with sufficient rapidity when the arc is not a large portion of the quadrant. Though the method explained in the text is on the whole much simpler, yet as the errors of computation are thereby unavoidably accumulated, it would be proper at intervals to calculate certain of the sines by an independent process.

The series' now given furnish also various modes for the rectification of the circle. Thus, assuming an arc equal to the radius, its sine is, $1 - \frac{1}{2.3} + \frac{1}{2.3.4.5} -$ &c. $= .841471$, and its cosine is, $1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2.3.4} -$ &c. $= .440302$. But that arc evidently approaches to 60°, of which the sine is $\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}} = .866025$, and the cosine .500000. Wherefore (Pr. 2. T.) the sine of the difference of these two arcs is $.866025 \times .540302 - .841471 \times .500000 = .04718$, and consequently, by the series, that interval itself is .0472. Hence the length of the arc of 60° is 1.0472, and the circumference of a circle which has unit for its radius is $3 \times 1.0472 = 3.1416$; an approximation extremely commodious.

Note XXXII.—Page 419.

The series for the tangent in terms of the arc, is easily derived, by the theory of functions, from the expression of the tangent of the double arc. Since $T, 2a = \frac{2t}{1-t^2} = 2t + 2t^3 + 2t^5 + \&c.$ Put $t = a + Aa^3 + Ba^5 + \&c.$ and, by substitution, $T, 2a = 2a + 8Aa^3 + 32Ba^5 + \&c. = 2a + (2A + 2)a^3 + (2B + 6A + 2)a^5 +, \&c.$ Equating, therefore, the corresponding terms, we obtain, $8A = 2A + 2$, or $A = \frac{1}{3}$, and $32B = 2B + 6A + 2$, or $30B = 4$, and $B = \frac{2}{15}$. Whence, in general, $T, a = a + \frac{1}{3}a^3 + \frac{2}{15}a^5$, &c. Again, revert this series and $a = t - \frac{1}{3}t^3 + \frac{1}{5}t^5 - \frac{1}{7}t^7 + \&c.$

The last series affords the most expeditious mode for the rectification of the circle. Assume an arc a, whose tangent t is one-fifth part of the radius, and (Sch. Prop. 5. T.) $T, 4a = \frac{4t - 4t^3}{1 - 6t^2 + t^4} = \frac{120}{119}$; consequently (Prop. 5. Trig.) $T, \overline{4a - 45^\circ} = \frac{1}{239} = .004,184,100,418$. Wherefore, computing the terms of the series, $a = .197,395,559,850$, and $4a = .789,582,239,400$. In like manner, we find $4a - 45^\circ = .004,184,076,000$, and hence the difference between these values, or .785,398,1634 exhibits the length of the octant; which number, multiplied by 4, gives 3,1415926536 for the circumference of a circle whose diameter is 1.

Note XXXIII.—Page 421.

This proposition would also furnish a simple quadrature of the circle. The sine of a semiarc being equal to half the chord, it follows that the ratio of an arc to its chord is compounded of the successive ratios of the radius to the cosines of the continued bisections of half that arc. Assuming therefore the arc of 60°, whose chord is equal to the radius, the logarithm of the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter will be thus computed:

Arith. comp. log. Cos, 15°	= .0150562219
Cos, 7° 30′	= .0037314339
Cos, 3° 45′	= .0009308547
Cos, 1° 52′ 30″	= .0002325891
Cos, 0° 56′ 15″	= .0000581395
Cos, 0 28′ 7½″	= .0000145344
One third of the last term.	= .0000048448
Logarithm of 3.	= .4771212547
	.4971498730, which

exceeds only by 3 in the last place the logarithm of 3,141592654. As the successive terms come to form very nearly a progression that descends by quotients of 4, the third of the last one is, for the reason stated in page 422, considered as equal to the result of the continued addition.

Note XXXIV.—Page 425.

An elegant mode of forming the approximate sines corresponding to any division of the quadrant, may be derived from the same

principles: For the successive differences of the sines of the arcs $A—B$, A, and $A+B$, are $S,A—S,\overline{A—B}$, and $S,\overline{A+B}—S,A$; and consequently the difference between these again, or the second difference of the sines, is $S,\overline{A+B}+S,\overline{A—B}—2S,A=$ (Prop. 3. cor. 2. T.) $—2VS,B \times S,A$. The second differences of the progressive sines are hence subtractive, and always proportional to the sines themselves. Wherefore the sines may be deduced from their second differences, by reversing the usual process, and recompounding their separate elements. Thus, the sines of $A—B$ and A being already known, their second and descending difference, as it is thus derived from the sine of A, will combine to form the succeeding sine of $A+B$, which is $-2VS,B \times S,A+(S,A-S,\overline{A-B})+S,A$. It only remains then, to determine, in any trigonometrical system, the constant multiplier of the sine, or twice the versed sine of the component arc. Suppose the quadrant to be divided into 24 equal parts, each containing 3° 45′, or 225′. The length of this arc is nearly $\frac{22}{7} \times \frac{1}{48} = \frac{11}{168}$, and consequently twice its versed sine $= \left(\frac{11}{168}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{233}$ in approximate terms. If the successive sines, corresponding to the division of the quadrant into 24 equal parts, be therefore continually multiplied by the fraction $\frac{1}{233}$, or divided by the number 233, the quotients thence arising will represent their second differences. But, since 233 is nearly equal to 225, or the length in minutes of the primary or component arc, and which differs not sensibly from its sine,—this last may be assumed as the divisor, the small aberration so produced being corrected by deferring the integral quotients. In this way, the following Table is constructed:

Parts of the quadrant.	Arcs.	Sines.	1st Diff.	2d Diff.	Arcs.	
1	225′	225	224	1	3°	45′
2	450′	449	222	2	7°	30′
3	675′	671	219	3	11°	15′
4	900′	890	215	4	15°	0′
5	1125′	1105	210	5	18°	45′
6	1350′	1315	205	* 5	22°	30′
7	1575′	1520	199	6	26°	15′
8	1800′	1719	191	* 7	30°	0′
9	2025′	1910	183	8	33°	45′
10	2250′	2093	174	9	37°	30′
11	2475′	2267	164	10	41°	15′
12	2700′	2431	154	* 10	45°	0′
13	2925′	2585	143	11	48°	45′
14	3150′	2728	131	12	52°	30′
15	3375′	2859	119	* 12	56°	15′
16	3600′	2978	106	13	60°	0′
17	3825′	3084	93	13	63°	45′
18	4050′	3177	79	14	67°	30′
19	4275′	3256	65	14	71°	15′
20	4500′	3321	51	14	75°	0′
21	4725′	3372	37	* 14	78°	45′
22	4950′	3409	22	15	82°	30′
23	5175′	3431	7	15	86°	15′
24	5400′	3438	0	15	90°	0′

The number 225, which expresses the length of the component arc, and consequently represents very nearly its sine, is here employed as the constant divisor. Thus, 225, divided by 225, gives a quotient 1, and this, subtracted from 225, leaves 224, which, being joined to 225, forms 449, the sine of the second arc. Again, 449 divided by 225, gives 2 for its integral quotient, which taken from 224, leaves 222; and this, added to 449, makes 671, the sine of the third arc. In this way, the sines are successively formed, till the quadrant is completed. The integral quotients, however, are deferred; that is, the nearest whole number in advance is not always taken. Thus the quotient of 1315 by 225, is $5\frac{38}{45}$, which approaches nearer to 6, and yet 5 is still retained. These efforts to redress the errors of computation are marked with asterisks.

It should be observed, that each of the three composite columns really forms a recurring series. In the second quadrant, the first differences become subtractive, and the same numbers for the sines are repeated in an inverted order. By continuing the process, these sines are reproduced in the third and fourth quadrants, only on the opposite side.

Such is the detailed explication of that very ingenious mode which, in certain cases, the Hindu astronomers employ, for constructing the table of approximate sines. But, ignorant totally of the principles of the operation, those humble calculators are content to follow blindly a slavish routine. The Brahmins must, therefore, have derived such information from people farther advanced than themselves in science, and of a bolder and more inventive genius. Whatever may be the pretensions of that passive race, their knowledge of trigonometrical computation has no solid claim to any high antiquity. It was probably, before the revival of letters in Europe, carried to the East, by the tide of victory. The na-

tives of Hindustan might receive instruction from the Persian astronomers, who were themselves taught by the Greeks of Constantinople, and stimulated to those scientific pursuits by the skill and liberality of their Arabian conquerors.

The same principles lead to an elegant construction of the approximate sines, entirely adapted to the decimal scale of numeration, and the nautical division of the circle. Suppose a quadrant to contain 16 equal parts, or *half points*; the length of each arc is nearly $\frac{22}{7} \times \frac{1}{32} = \frac{11}{112}$, and consequently twice its versed sine is $\left(\frac{11}{112}\right)^2$, or, in round numbers, $\frac{1}{102}$. It will be sufficiently accurate, therefore, to employ 100 for the constant divisor. The sine of the first arc being likewise expressed by 100, let the nearer integral quotients be always retained, and the sine of the whole quadrant, or the radius itself, will come out exactly 1000. The first term being divided by 100 gives 1 for the second difference, which, subtracted from 100, leaves 99 for the first difference, and this joined to 100, forms the second term. Again, dividing 199 by 100, the quotient 2 is the second difference, which, taken from 99, leaves 97 for the first difference, and this, added to 199, gives the third term. In like manner, the rest of the terms are found.

Half Points.	Arcs.		Sines.	1st Diff.	2d Diff.	Excess.	Correct Sines.
1	5°	37′½	100	99	1	3	97
2	11°	15′	199	97	2	4	195
3	16°	52′½	296	94	3	5	291
4	22°	30′	390	90	4	6	384
5	28°	7′½	480	85	5	7	473
6	33°	45′	565	79	6	8	557
7	39°	22′½	644	73	6	9	635
8	45°	00′	717	66	7	10	707
9	50°	37′½	783	58	8	9	774
10	56°	15′	841	50	8	8	833
11	61°	52′½	891	41	9	7	884
12	67°	30′	932	32	9	6	926
13	73°	7′½	964	22	10	5	959
14	78°	45′	986	12	10	4	982
15	84°	22′½	998	2		3	995
16	90°	00′	1000				

The errors occasioned by neglecting the fractions accumulate at first, but afterwards gradually diminish, from the effect of compensation. The greatest deviation takes place, as might be expected, at the middle arc, whose sine is 707 instead of 417.

Reckoning the error in excess as limited by 10, and declining uniformly on each side, the correct sines are finally deduced. The numbers thus obtained seldom differ, by the thousandth part, from the truth, and are hence far more accurate than the practice of navigation ever requires. This simple and expeditious mode of forming the sines is not merely an object of curiosity, but may be deemed of very considerable importance, as it will enable the mariner, altogether independent of the aid of books, to the loss of which he is often exposed by the hazards of the sea, to construct a table of *departure* and *difference of latitude*, sufficiently accurate for every real purpose.

Note XXXV.—Page 444, near the bottom.

This useful problem is commonly solved by the help of spherical trigonometry. It admits, however, of a simple and elegant general solution, derived from the arithmetic of sines. Let a and b denote the two vertical angles, or the acclivities of the diverging lines, A the oblique angle which these contain, and A′ the reduced or horizontal angle. Since the magnitude of an angle depends not on the length of its sides, assume each of them equal to the radius or unit, and it is evident that the base of the isosceles triangle thus limited will be the chord of the oblique angle A, the perpendiculars from its extremities to the horizontal plane, the sines,—and the horizontal traces or projections, the cosines, of the vertical lines a and b. The base of the isoceles triangle forms the hypotenuse of a right-angled vertical triangle, of which the perpendicular is the difference between the vertical lines. Consequently the square of the reduced base is equal to the excess of the square of the chord of A above the square of the difference of the sines of a and b, or

(6 def. T.) $2 - 2\text{Cos}, A - (\text{S}, a - \text{S}, b)^2 =$

(II. 22. El.) $2 - 2\text{Cos},A - \text{S}^2,a - \text{S}^2,b + 2\text{S},a.\text{S},b =$ (2 cor. def. T.) $\text{Cos}^2,a + \text{Cos}^2,b + 2\text{S},a.\text{S},b - 2\text{Cos},\text{A}$. Wherefore (Prop. 11. Trig.) in the triangle now traced on the horizontal plane, $2\text{Cos},a.\text{Cos},b.\text{Cos},\text{A}' = 2\text{Cos},\text{A} - 2\text{S},a.\text{S},b$; and multiplying by $\frac{1}{2}\text{Sec},a.\text{Sec},b$, there results (4 def. T.),

$$1.\ \text{Cos},\text{A}' = \text{Sec},a.\text{Sec},b.\text{Cos},\text{A} - \text{T},a.\text{T},b.$$

This expression appears concise and commodious, but it may be still variously transformed.

For $\text{VS},\text{A}' = 1 - \text{Cos},\text{A}' = 1 + \text{T},a.\text{T},b - \text{Sec},a.\text{Sec},b.\text{Cos},\text{A}.$
$= \text{Sec},a.\text{Sec},b\,(\text{Cos},a.\text{Cos},b + \text{S},a.\text{S},b - \text{Cos},\text{A}) =$
(Prop. 2. Trig.) $\text{Sec},a.\text{Sec},b\,(\text{Cos},\overline{a - b} - \text{Cos},\text{A})$; whence

$$2.\ \text{VS},\text{A}' = \text{Sec},a.\text{Sec},b\,(\text{VS},\text{A} - \text{VS},\overline{a - b}).$$

Again, because (2 cor. 1. & 3 cor. 5. T.) $\text{VS},\text{A} = 2\text{S}^2,\frac{1}{2}\text{A}$, and $\text{VS},\text{A} - \text{VS},\overline{a-b} = 2.\text{S},\frac{\text{A} + (a - b)}{2}.\text{S},\frac{\text{A} - (a + b)}{2}$, we obtain, by substitution,

$$3.\ \text{S}^2,\tfrac{1}{2}\text{A} = \text{Sec},a.\text{Sec},b\left(\text{S},\frac{\text{A} + (a - b)}{2}.\text{S},\frac{\text{A} - (a + b)}{2}\right)$$

which expression is the best adapted, on the whole, for calculating with logarithms.

Of these *formulæ*, the first, I presume, is new, and appears distinguished by its simplicity and elegance. The last one however is, on the whole, the best adapted for logarithmic calculation.

When the vertical angles are small, the problem will admit of a very convenient approximation. For, assuming the arcs a, b as

equal to their tangents, it follows, by substitution, that $\text{Cos},A' = \text{Cos},A\sqrt{(1+a^2)}\sqrt{(1+b^2)} - ab = \text{Cos},A((1+\frac{1}{2}a^2)(1+\frac{1}{2}b^2)) - ab = \text{Cos},A(1+\frac{1}{2}a^2+\frac{1}{2}b^2) - ab$, nearly. Whence the decrement of the cosine of that oblique angle is

$$ab - \text{Cos},A(\tfrac{1}{2}a^2+\tfrac{1}{2}b^2)\text{; but}$$

$$(\text{II. 23. El.})\ ab = \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2\text{, and}$$

$$(\text{II. 25. El.})\ \tfrac{1}{2}a^2+\tfrac{1}{2}b^2 = \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2\text{;}$$

wherefore the decrement of $\text{Cos},A' =$

$$\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2 - \text{Cos},A\left(\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2\left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2\right) =$$

$$\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2(1+\text{Cos},A) - \left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2(1-\text{Cos},A).$$

Consequently the increment of the oblique angle itself is, by Note XXVII,

$$\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2\left(\frac{1+\text{Cos},A}{\text{S},A}\right) - \left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2\left(\frac{1-\text{Cos},A}{\text{S},A}\right) = (\text{Pr. 10. Trig.})$$

$$\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 \text{T},\tfrac{1}{2}A - \left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2 \text{Cot},\tfrac{1}{2}A.$$

Such is the theorem that the celebrated Legendre has given, for reducing an oblique angle to its projection on the horizontal plane. It is very neat, and extremely useful in practice. But to connect it with our division of the quadrant, requires some adaptation. Let a and b express the vertical angles in minutes; then will $\frac{1}{3438}\left(\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2\text{T},\tfrac{1}{2}A - \left(\frac{a-b}{2}\right)^2 \text{Cot}\tfrac{1}{2}A\right)$ denote, likewise in minutes, the quantity of reduction to be added to the oblique angle.

Note XXXVI.—Page 444, last paragraph.

In computing very extensive surveys, it becomes necessary to allow for the minute derangements occasioned by the convexity of the surface. The sides of the triangles which connect the successive stations, though reduced to the same horizontal plane, may be considered as formed by arcs of great circles, and their solution hence belongs to Spherical Trigonometry. But, avoiding such laborious calculations, for which indeed our Tables are not fitted, it seems far better to estimate merely the deviation of those incurved triangles from triangles with rectilineal sides. For effecting that correction, two ingenious methods have lately been proposed on the Continent. The first is that employed by Delambre, who substitutes the chords for their arcs, and thus converts the small spherical, into a plane, triangle. This conversion requires two distinct steps. 1. Each spherical angle, or that formed by tangents at the surface of the globe, is changed into its corresponding plane angle contained by the chords. Let α and β express the sides or arcs in miles; and the angles of elevation, or those made by the tangents and the respective chords, will be (III. 29. El.) denoted by $\frac{21600}{24856}\cdot\frac{1}{2}\alpha$ and $\frac{21600}{24856}\cdot\frac{1}{2}\beta$ in minutes, or $\frac{1350'}{3187}\cdot\alpha$ and $\frac{1350'}{3107}\cdot\beta$. Insert these values, therefore, in place of a and b in the *formula* of the preceding note, and the quantity of reduction of the angle A, contained by the small arcs α and β, will be $\frac{1}{1214}\left((\alpha+\beta)^2.\mathrm{T},\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{A}-(\alpha-\beta)^2.\mathrm{Cot},\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{A}\right)$, in seconds. 2. Each arc is converted into its chord: But, by the Scholium to Proposition VI. of the Trigonometry, an arc α is to its chord,

[illegible]

[illegible] spherical tri- [illegible] of [illegible] S,B, [illegible] and [illegible]

[illegible] Cos,A,S,B:

[illegible] But the first and second terms being [illegible] it is obvious [illegible] will not be [illegible] pairs be [illegible] S,A,SB+ [illegible] Prop. [illegible] S,A,Cos,B [illegible] therefore, by division, $1 : \frac{a^2 - c^2}{6}$ :: [illegible] Consequently, since a and b are pro-

portional to S,A and S,B, $\partial\ (S,\overline{A-B}) = S,A\ .\ S,B. \frac{\alpha^2-\beta^2}{6} =$

$\frac{\alpha\beta}{6}\left(S^2,A - S^2,B\right) = \left(\text{Proposition III. cor. 5. Trigonometry,}\right)$

$\frac{\alpha\beta}{6}\left(S,\overline{A+B}.S,\overline{A-B}\right)$, or $\partial = \frac{\alpha\beta}{6}.S,\overline{A+B}$. But the sine of the sum of A and B is the same as that of their supplement C, or of the angle contained by the sides α and β; and consequently ∂ is the third part of $\frac{\alpha\beta}{2}.S,C$, the area of the triangle, or the third part of the excess of the angles of the spherical, above those of the plane, triangle. Wherefore the sines of the sides, which, in the spherical triangle, are as the sines of their opposite angles, are likewise proportioned, in the plane triangle, to the sines of those angles, increased each by the common excess. It is hence evident, that the angles of the plane triangle are obtained from those of the spherical, by deducting from each the third part of the excess above two right angles, as indicated by the area of the triangle.

The whole surface of the globe being proportioned to 720°, that of a square mile will correspond to $\frac{720^\circ}{24856 \times 7912}$, or the $\frac{1}{75.88}$ part of a second. Hence each angle of the small spherical triangle requires to be diminished by $\frac{1}{455.28}.\alpha\beta S,C$ in seconds.

It is convenient to reduce the solution of triangles to algebraic *formulæ*. Let *a*, *b* and *c* denote the sides of any plane triangle, and A, B, and C their opposite angles. The various relations which connect these quantities may all be derived from the application of Prop. 11.

1. $Cos\ A = \frac{b^2+c^2-a^2}{2bc}$.

2. But, since $\sin\frac{1}{2}A^2=\frac{1}{2}(1-\cos A)$, it follows, by substitution, that

$$\sin\tfrac{1}{2}A^2=\frac{2bc-b^2-c^2+a^2}{4bc}=\frac{a^2-(b-c)^2}{4bc}=\frac{(a+b-c)\,(a-b+c)}{4bc},$$

and therefore, s denoting the semiperimeter,

$\mathit{Sin}\frac{1}{2}A^2=\dfrac{(s-b)\,(s-c)}{bc}$; which corresponds to Prop. 14.

3. Again, because, $\cos\frac{1}{2}A^2=\frac{1}{2}(1+\cos A$, by substitution, $\cos\frac{1}{2}A^2=$ $\dfrac{2bc+b^2+c^2-a^2}{4bc}=\dfrac{(b+c)^2-a^2}{4bc}=\dfrac{(\,(b+c)+a\,)\,(\,(b+c)-a\,)}{4bc}$, and consequently

$\mathit{Cos}\frac{1}{2}A^2=\dfrac{s(s-a)}{bc}$; which agrees with Prop. 13.

4. The second expression being now divided by the third, gives $\mathit{Tan}\frac{1}{2}A^2=\dfrac{(s-b)\,(s-c)}{s(s-a)}$, corresponding to Prop. 12.

These are the *formulæ* wanted for the solution of the first case of oblique angled triangles. To obtain the rest, another transformation is required.

5. It is manifest that $\sin A^2=1-\cos A^2=\dfrac{4b^2c^2-(b^2+c^2-a^2)^2}{4b^2c^2}$,

and consequently, $\sin A^2=\dfrac{4T^2}{b^2c^2}$, or $\sin A=\dfrac{2T}{bc}$. For the same reason, $\sin B=\dfrac{2T}{ac}$, and hence $\dfrac{\sin A}{\sin B}=\dfrac{a}{b}$; which corresponds to Prop. 9.

6. Again, by composition, $\dfrac{\sin A-\sin B}{\sin A+\sin B}=\dfrac{a-b}{a+b}$, and therefore, $\dfrac{a-b}{a+b}=\dfrac{\tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{\tan\frac{1}{2}(A+B)}$; which agrees with Prop. 10.

7. Lastly, transforming the first expression, there results,

$$a=\sqrt{(b^2+c^2-2bc\cos A)}=\sqrt{(\,(b-c)^2+2bc\,\mathrm{vers}A\,)}$$
$$=\sqrt{(\,(b+c)^2-2bc(1+\cos A)\,)}.$$

The preceding *formulæ* will solve all the cases in plane trigonometry; but, by certain modifications, they may be sometimes better adapted for logarithmic calculation.

8. Divide the terms af art. 6. by a and $\dfrac{\tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{\tan\frac{1}{2}(A+B)}=\dfrac{1-\frac{b}{a}}{1+\frac{b}{a}}$;

let $\frac{b}{a}=\tan x$, and $\frac{\tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{\tan\frac{1}{2}(A+B)}=\frac{1-\tan x}{1+\tan x}=\tan(45^\circ-x)$. Wherefore $\frac{b}{a}=\tan x$, and $\tan(45^\circ-x)=\tan\frac{1}{2}C\ \tan\frac{1}{2}(A-B)=$
$\tan\frac{1}{2}C\ \cot(\frac{1}{2}C+B)=\tan\frac{1}{2}C(-\cot(\frac{1}{2}C+A))$.

9. Again, from art. 7. $a=\sqrt{((b-c)^2+2bc\ \text{vers}A)}=$
$(b-c)\sqrt{(1+\frac{2bc}{(b-c)^2}\cdot\text{vers}A)}$; consequently find $\tan x=$
$\frac{\sqrt{2bc}}{b-c}\sqrt{\text{vers}\ A}=2\frac{\sqrt{bc}}{b-c}\sin\frac{1}{2}A$, and $a=(b-c)\sec x=\frac{b-c}{\cos x}$.

10. But the expression in art. 1., by a different decomposition, gives $a=\sqrt{((b+c)^2-2bs\ \text{suvers}A)}=(b+c)\sqrt{(1-\frac{2bc}{(b+c)^2}\ \text{suvers}A)}$;
wherefore find $\sin x=\frac{\sqrt{2bc}}{b+c}\sqrt{\text{suvers}A}=2\frac{\sqrt{bc}}{b+c}\cos\frac{1}{2}A$, and
$a=(b+c)\cos x$.

11. Other expressions are likewise occasionally used. Thus, by art. 1, $2bc.\cos A=b^2+c^2-a^2$, or $c^2-2bc.\cos A=a^2-b^2$, and, solving this quadratic, we obtain $c=b\ \cos A\pm\sqrt{(a^2-b^2+b^2\cos A^2)}=$ $b\cos A\pm\sqrt{(a^2-b^2\sin A^2)}$, or $c=b\cos A\pm\sqrt{((a+b\sin A)(a-b\sin A))}$. When two sides and an angle opposite to one of them are given, the third side is thus found by a direct process.

12. From art. 5, $c=a\frac{\sin C}{\sin A}$; but C being a supplementary angle, its sine is the same as that of A + B, and consequently $c=a(\frac{\sin A\cos B+\cos A\sin B}{\sin A})$. By a similar transformation,
$$c=a\frac{\sin C}{\sin(B+C)}=a\left(\frac{\sin C}{\sin B\cos C+\cos B\sin C}\right)=\frac{a}{\cos B+\sin B\cot C}.$$

13. Lastly, $\cot A+\cot C=\frac{\sin(A+C)}{\sin A\sin C}=\frac{\sin B}{\sin A\sin C}=\frac{b}{a\sin C}$, and
therefore $\cot A=\frac{b}{a\sin C}-\cot C=\frac{b-a\cos C}{a\sin C}$, or $\tan A=\frac{a\sin C}{b-a\cos C}$.

If the angle A be assumed equal to 90°, the preceding formulæ will *become restricted* to the solution of right-angled triangles.

14. From art. 1, $cos A = o = \frac{b^2 + c^2 - a^2}{2bc}$; whence, $a^2 = b^2 + c^2$, which expresses the radical property of the right angled triangle.

15. From art. 5, $\frac{sin B}{sin A} = \frac{b}{a}$, and consequently $sin B = \frac{b}{a}$, which corresponds with Prop. 7.

16. Again, from the same article, $\frac{b}{a} = \frac{sin B}{sin C} = \frac{sin B}{cos B}$, and therefore $tan B = \frac{b}{c} = cot C$.

For the convenience of computing with logarithms, other expressions may be produced.

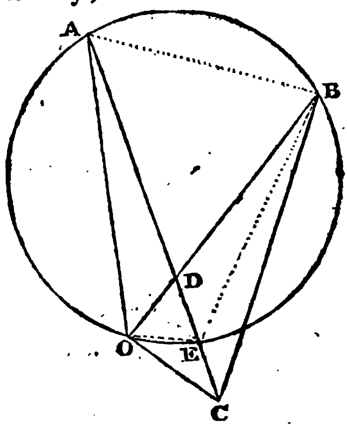
17. Thus, from art. 14, $b^2 = a^2 - c^2$, and hence $b = \sqrt{((a+c)(a-c))}$.

18. Since $a^2 = b^2(1 + \frac{c^2}{b^2})$, put $\frac{c}{b} = tan\ x$; and $a = b(sec\ x) = \frac{b}{cos\ x}$.

19. Lastly, because $b^2 = a^2(1 - \frac{c^2}{a^2})$, put $\frac{c}{a} = sin\ x$, and $b = a.cos\ x$.

Another problem of great use in the practice of delicate surveying is *to reduce angles to the centre of the station.* Instead of planting moveable signals at each point of observation, it will often be found more convenient to select the more notable spires, towers, or other prominent objects which occur interspersed over the face of the country. In such cases, it is evidently impossible for the theodolite or circular instrument, although brought within the cover of the building, to be placed immediately under the vane. The observer approaches the centre of the station as near, therefore, as he can with advantage, and calculates the quantity of error which the minute displacement may occasion. Thus, suppose it were required to determine the angle AOB which the remote objects A and B subtend at O, the centre of a permanent station: The instrument is placed in the immediate vicinity at the point C, and the distance CO, with the angle of deviation OCA, are noted, while the principal angle ACB is observed. The central angle AOB may hence be

computed from the rules of trigonometry; but the calculation is effected by simpler and more expeditious methods. Since the exterior angle ADB is equal both to AOB with OAC, and to ACB with OBC; it is evident that AOB = ACB + OBC — OAC. But the angles OBC and OAC, being extremely small, may be considered as equal to their sines, and



$sin\,OBC = \frac{CO}{OB}\, sin\,BCO$, and

$sin\,OAC = \frac{CO}{OA}\, sin\,ACO$; wherefore the angle AOB at the centre, is nearly equal to $ACB + CO\left(\frac{sin BCO}{OB} - \frac{sin ACO}{OA}\right) = ACB + CO\left(\frac{sin(ACB+ACO)}{OB} - \frac{sin ACO}{OA}\right)$. Call the distances AC and BC of the point of observation, a and b, the distances AO and BO of the centre a' and b'; the displacement CO, and the angle ACO of deviation m and ϕ, while the subtended angles ACB and AOB are denoted by C and C′, and the opposite angles ABO and OAB by A and B; then $C' = C + m\left(\frac{sin(C+\phi)}{b'} - \frac{sin\phi}{a'}\right)\, 3438'$. If the centre O lies on AC, the correction of the observed angle, expressed in minutes, will be merely $\left(\frac{m}{b'} sin C\right)\, 3438$.

But the problem admits of a simpler approximation. Let a circle circumscribe the points A, O, and B, and cut AC in E. The angle AOB = AEB = ACB + CBE; but $sin\,CBE = \frac{CE}{EB}\, sin\,ACB$, and $sin\,OEC = sin\,AEO$ or ABO is equal to $\frac{CO}{CE}\, sin\,COE$ or AEO — ACO, and hence by combination $sin.CBE = \frac{CO}{EB}\,\frac{sin\,ACB\, sin\,(ABO - ACO)}{sin ABO}$. Since, therefore, EB is nearly equal to OB, and the small angle CBE may be regarded as equal to its sine, the correction to be added to the observed an-

gle is denoted in minutes by $\frac{m}{b'} \frac{\sin C \sin(A-\phi)}{\sin A} 3438$. This quantity, it is evident, will entirely vanish when ϕ becomes equal to A, or the angle ABO equals ACO; in which case, the point of observation C coincides with E, or lies in the circumference of a circle that passes through the two remote points A and B and centre of the station. To place the instrument at E therefore, would only require to move it along CA, till the angle AEO be equal to ABO.

Both these methods for the reduction of an angle to the centre are given by Delambre; but, in his calculations, he generally preferred the last one, as being simpler and sufficiently accurate for practice. The investigation however will be found to be now considerably shortened.

Having in some of the preceding notes briefly pointed out the several corrections employed in the more delicate geodesiacal operations, I shall subjoin a few general remarks on the application of trigonometry to practice. The art of surveying consists in determining the boundaries of an extended surface. When performed in the completest manner, it ascertains the positions of all the prominent objects within the scope of observation, measures their mutual distances and relative heights, and consequently defines the various contours which mark the surface. But the land-surveyor seldom aims at such minute and scrupulous accuracy; his main object is to trace expeditiously the chief boundaries, and to compute the superficial contents of each field. In hilly grounds, however, it is not the absolute surface that is measured, but the diminished quantity which would result, had the whole been reduced to a horizontal plane. This distinction is founded on the obvious principle, that, since plants shoot up vertically, the vegetable produce of a swelling eminence can never exceed what would have grown from its levelled base. All the sloping or hypotenusal distances are, therefore, reduced invariably to their horizontal lengths, before the calculation is begun.

Land is surveyed either by means of the chain simply, or by combining it with a theodolite or some other angular instrument. The several fields are divided into large triangles, of which the sides are measured by the chain; and if the exterior boundary happens to be irregular, the perpendicular distance or offset is taken at each bending. The surface of the component triangles is then computed from Prop. 37. Book VI. of the Elements of Geometry, and that of the accrescent space by Prop. 13. Book II. In this method the triangles should be chosen as nearly equilateral as possible; for if they be very oblique, the smallest error in the length of their sides will occasion a wide difference in the estimate of the surface. The calculation is much simpler from the application of Prop. 7. Book II. of the Elements, the base and altitude of each triangle only being measured; but that slovenly practice appears liable to great inaccuracy. The perpendicular may indeed be traced by help of the surveying cross, or more correctly by the box sextant, or the optical square, which is only the same instrument in a reduced and limited form; yet such repeated and unavoidable interruption to the progress of the work will probably more than counterbalance any advantage that might thence be gained.

The usual mode of surveying a large estate, is to measure round it with the chain, and observe the angles at each turn by means of the theodolite. But these observations would require to be made with great care. If the boundaries of the estate be tolerably regular, it may be considered as a polygon, of which the angles, being necessarily very oblique, are therefore apt to affect the accuracy of the results. It would serve to rectify the conclusions, were such angles at each station conveniently divided, and the more distant signals observed. The best method of surveying, if not always the most expeditious, undoubtedly is to cover the ground with a series of connected triangles, planting the theodolite at each angular point, and computing from some base of considerable extent, which has been selected and measured with nice attention. The labour of transporting the instrument might also in many cases be abridged, by observing at any station the bearings at once of several signals. Angles can be measured more accurately than lines, and it might therefore be desirable that surveyors would generally employ theodolites of a better construction, and trust less to the aid of the chain.

The quantity of surface marked out in this way, is easily computed from trigonometry. Adopting the general notation, the area of a triangle which has two sides, and their included angle known, it is evident, will be denoted by $\frac{ab}{2}.sinC$, and the area of a triangle of which there are given all the angles and a side, is $\frac{a^2}{2}.\frac{sinB\ sinC}{sinA}$.

The English *chain* is 22 yards, or 66 feet in length, and equivalent to four *poles*; it is hence the tenth part of a furlong, or the eightieth part of a mile. The chain is divided into a hundred links, each occupying 7.92 inches. An *acre* contains ten square chains or 100,000 links. A square mile, therefore, includes 640 acres; and this large measure is deemed sufficient, in certain rude and savage countries, as the Back Settlements of America, where vast tracts of new land are allotted merely by running lines north and south, and intersecting these by perpendiculars, at each interval of a mile.

The Scotch chain consists of 24 ells, each containing 37.069 inches, and ought therefore to have 74.138 feet for its correct length. The English acre is hence to the Scotch, in round numbers, as 11 to 14, or very nearly as the circle to its circumscribing square. But this provincial measure is gradually wearing into disuse, and already the statute acre seems to be generally adopted in the counties south of the Forth.

LEVELLING is a delicate and important branch of general surveying. It may be performed very expeditiously by help of a large theodolite, capable of measuring with precision the vertical angle subtended by a remote object, the distance being calculated, and allowance made for the effect of the earth's convexity and the influence of refraction. But the more usual and preferable method is to employ an instrument designed for the purpose, and termed a *spirit-level*, which is accompanied by a pair of square staves, each composed of two parts that slide out into a rod of ten feet in length, every foot

being divided centesimally. Levelling is distinguished into two kinds, the simple and the compound; the former, which rarely admits of application, assigns the difference of altitude by a single observation; but the latter discovers it from a combined series of observations carried along an irregular surface, the aggregate of the several descents being deducted from that of the ascents. The staves are therefore placed successively along the line of survey, at suitable intervals according to the nature of the ground and not exceeding 400 yards, the levelling instrument being always planted nearly in the middle between them, and directed backwards to the first staff, and then forwards to the second. The difference between the heights intercepted by the back and the fore observation, must evidently give at each station the quantity of ascent or descent, and the error occasioned by the curvature of the globe may be safely overlooked, as on such short distances it will not amount at each station to the hundredth part of a foot. To discover the final result of a series of operations, or the difference of altitude between the extreme stations, the measures of the back and fore observations are all collected severally, and the excess of the latter above the former indicates the entire quantity of descent.

As an example of levelling, I shall take the concluding part of a survey which my friend Mr Jardine, civil engineer, has recently made for the Town-Council of Edinburgh, with a degree of accuracy seldom attempted, in tracing the descent from the Black and Crawley springs, near the summits of the Pentland chain, to the Reservoir on the Castlehill, with a view to the conducting of a fresh supply of water from those heights. To avoid unnecessary complication, however, I shall only notice the principal stations. The figure annexed represents a profile or vertical section of the ground, LV is the level of the Black spring, and the several perpendiculars from it denote the varying depth of the surface, referred to the base assumed 700 feet below. The stations marked are as follow:

Cheviot above Wisp Hill. But refraction gave the mountain a more towering elevation than it really had; and the measure being reduced in the former ratio of 38′ 33″.7 to 33 19″, is hence brought down to 708 feet.

Again, the distance 292012.7 feet, or 55.3054 miles, of Cross Fell from Cheviot, corresponds to an arc of 47′ 54″.8, which, reduced by the effect of refraction, would leave 41′ 23″.8 for the sum of the depressions at both stations. Consequently, Cheviot had, from Cross Fell, a true depression of only 23′ 44″—20′ 41″.9 or 3′ 2″.1, and is therefore lower than that mountain by 258 feet.

These results agree very nearly with each other. The height of Cross Fell above the level of the sea being 2901, that of Wisp Hill is 1934, and that of Cheviot 2642 or 2643. In the Trigonometrical Survey, the latter heights are stated at 1940 and 2658; a difference of small moment, owing to a balance of errors, or perhaps to the adoption of some other *data* with respect to horizontal refraction, and which do not appear on record.

From the same valuable work, I am tempted to borrow another example, which has more local interest. From Lumsdane Hill, the north top of Largo Law, at the distance of 189240.1 feet, or 35.84 miles, appeared sunk 9′ 32″ below the horizon. Here the intercepted arc is 31′ 3″ and the effect of the earth's curvature, modified by refraction, is 13′ 24″.8; whence the true elevation of Largo Law was 13′ 24″.8—9′ 32″, or 3′ 52″.8, which makes it 213 feet higher than Lumsdane Hill, or 938 feet above the level of the sea. In the Trigonometrical Survey, this height is stated at 952; but I am inclined to prefer the former number, having once found it by a barometrical measurement, in weather not indeed the most favourable, to be only 935 feet.

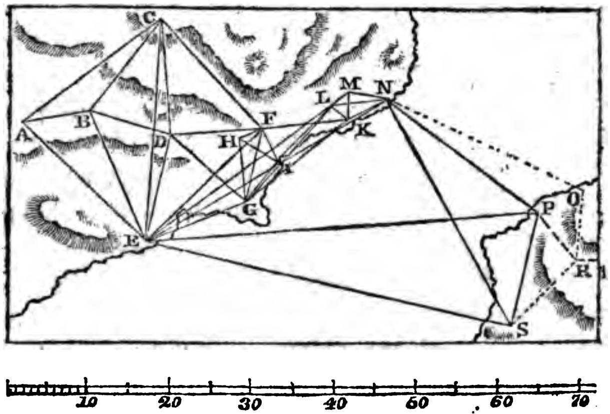
Maritime Surveying is of a mixed nature: It not only determines the positions of the remarkable headlands, and other conspicuous objects that present themselves along the vicinity of a coast, but likewise ascertains the situation of the various inlets, rocks, shallows and soundings which occur in approaching the shore. To sur-

vey a new or inaccessible coast, two boats are moored at a proper interval, which is carefully measured on the surface of the water; and from each boat the bearings of all the prominent points of land are taken by means of an azimuth compass, or the angles subtended by these points and the other boat are measured by a Hadley's sextant. Having now on paper drawn the base to any scale, straight lines radiating from each end at the observed angles, as in Prop. 21. of the Trigonometry, will by their intersections give the positions of the several points from which the coast may be sketched.—But a chart is more accurately constructed, by combining a survey made on land, with observations taken on the water. A smooth level piece of ground is chosen, on which a base of considerable length is measured out, and station staves are fixed at its extremities. If no such place can be found, the mutual distance and position of two points conveniently situate for planting the staves, though divided by a broken surface, are determined from one or more triangles, which connect with a shorter and temporary base assumed near the beach. A boat then explores the offing, and at every rock, shallow, or remarkable sounding, the bearings of the station staves are noticed. These observations furnish so many triangles, from which the situation of the several points are easily ascertained.—When a correct map of the coast can be procured, the labour of executing a maritime survey is materially shortened. From each notable point of the surface of the water, the bearings of two known objects on the land are taken, or the intermediate angles subtended by three such objects are observed. In the first case, those various points have their situations ascertained by Prop. 20. and the second case by Prop. 21. of the Trigonometry. To facilitate the last construction, an instrument called the *Station-Pointer* has been invented, consisting of three brass rulers, which open and set at the given angles.

The nice art of observing has in its progress kept pace with the improved skill displayed in the construction of instruments. Surveys on a vast scale have lately been performed in Europe, with that refined accuracy which seems to mark the perfection of science. After the conclusion of the American war, a memoir of Count Cassini de Thury was transmitted by the French government to our

Court, stating the important advantages which would accrue to astronomy and navigation, if the difference between the meridians of the observations of Greenwich and Paris were ascertained by actual measurement. A spirit of accommodation and concert fortunately then prevailed. Orders were speedily given for carrying the plan into execution; and General Roy, who was charged with the conduct of the business on this side of the Channel, proceeded with activity and zeal. In the summer of 1784, a fundamental base, rather more than five miles in length, was traced on Hounslow Heath, about 54 feet above the level of the sea, and measured with every precaution, by means of deal rods, glass tubes, and a steel chain, allowance being made for the effects of the variable heat of the atmosphere in expanding those materials. The same line was, seven years afterwards, remeasured with an improved chain, which yet gave a difference on the whole of only three inches. The mean result, or 27404.2 feet, at the temperature of 62° by Fahrenheit's scale, is therefore assumed as the true length of the base. Connected with this line, and commencing from Windsor Castle, a series of thirty-two primary triangles was, in 1787 and 1788, extended to Dover and Hastings, on the coast of Kent and Sussex. Two triangles more stretched across the Channel. The horizontal and vertical angles at each station were taken with singular accuracy by a theodolite, which the celebrated artist Ramsden had, after much delay, constructed, of the largest dimensions and the most exquisite workmanship. At the same period, a new base of verification was measured on Romney Marsh, 15½ feet above the sea, and found, after various reductions, to be 28535.6773 feet in length. This base, computed from the nearest chain of triangles dependent on that of Hounslow Heath, ought to have been 28533.3; differing scarcely more than two feet on a distance of eighty miles. The mean, or 28534.5, is adopted for calculating the adjacent and subsequent triangles. These triangles near the coast were unavoidably confined and oblique; but their sides are generally deduced from larger and more regular triangles, expanding over the interior of the country. The annexed figure exhibits the most interesting portion of this memorable survey, and represents the various combination of triangles. Attached to it is a scale of English miles.

A Frant Church
B Goodhurst Church
C Hollingborn Hill
D Tenterden Church
E Fairlight Down
F Allington Knoll
G Lydd Church
H Ruckinge
I High Nook
K Folkstone Turnpike
L Padlesworth
M Swingfield Church
N Dover Castle
O Church at Calais
P Blancnez Signal
R Fiennes Signal
S Montlambert Signal
KL *The base of verification.*



Calculation of the sides of the Triangles.

			ACE	
A	70°	23′	2″	141744.4
C	52	11	3 *	113926
E	48	25	55	107895.7

			ABC	
A	27	4	36.13	71298.5
B	136	27	35.87	——
C	16	27	48 *	44391.2

			ABE	
A	43	18	25.87	93629.2
B	105	39	28.86	——
E	31	2	5.27	——

			BCD	
B	68	13	19.5	71887.5
C	44	38	44.04 *	54376.5
D	67	7	56.46	——

			BDE	
B	49°	39′	35.77″	71637.2
D	94	59	25.81	93629.2
E	35	20	58.42 *	——

			CDF	
C	40	0	58.96 *	61777.5
D	91	34	22.04	96039.8
F	48	24	39	——

			DFG	
D	43	45	23.18	47850.9
F	73	0	27	66169.2
G	63	14	9.82 *	——

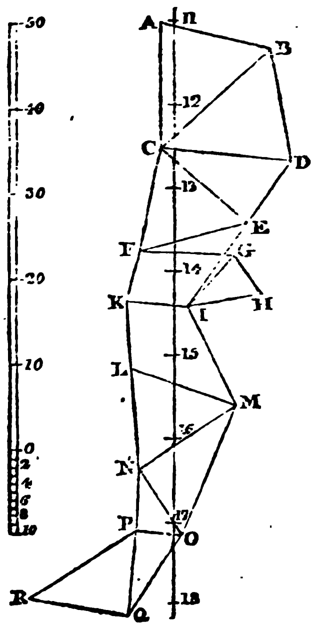
			DEG	
D	62	32	52.51	71692.2
E	54	59	17.31	——
G	62	27	50.18 *	71637.2

Court [illegible]
astro[illegible]
dians [illegible]
ed [illegible]
cert[illegible]
car[illegible]
ch[illegible]
ne[illegible]
a [illegible]

[illegible] The [illegible] triangles [illegible] [illegible] from conjoined observations. In [illegible] [illegible] affected by the spherical excess, were [illegible] [illegible] of tentative process. It results [illegible] [illegible], that [illegible] Castle lies south 67° 45′ 3[illegible]″ east,

the distance of 328231 feet or 62.165 miles, from Greenwich atory. On their part, the French astronomers, under the di- of Cassini, carried forward the trigonometrical operations Dunkirk to Paris; employing Borda's *repeating circle*, an in- nt much smaller and less perfect than Ramsden's theodolite, rmed on a principle which always procures the observer a near nsation of errors. From a comparison of the whole, it follows he meridian of the Observatory of Paris lies 2° 19′ 51″ east that of Greenwich, differing only nine seconds in defect from the late Dr Maskelyne had previously determined from combin- stronomical observations.

ie success with which that great survey was attended, gave oc- on both in France and England to still more extensive projects. National Assembly, amidst other essential improvements which ieditated, having resolved to adopt a general and consistent sys- i of measures, the length of a degree of the meridian at the mid- point between the pole and the equator was proposed as a per- nent basis. But to secure greater accuracy in determining the ndard, it had been decided to prolong the observations on both les of the mean latitude, and trace a chain of triangles over the hole extent from Dunkirk to Barcelona. This bold plan was ex- cuted in the course of the years 1792, 1793, 1794 and 1795, with jual sagacity and resolution, by MM. Delambre and Mechain, who, uring all the horrors of revolutionary commotion, yet pressed for- ward their operations in spite of obstacles and dangers of the most sickening kind. After the various triangles, amounting in total to 115, had been observed, they were connected, in the neighbourhood of Paris, with a base of more than seven miles in length, and measuring, at the temperature of 16¼° on the centigrade scale, or 61¼° by Fahrenheit, 6075.9 toises from Melun to Lieursaint. A base of verification was likewise traced near the southern extremity of the line of survey, extending 6006.25 toises along the road from Perpignan to Narbonne. This base appeared not to differ one foot from the calculation founded on the other, though separated by a distance of 400 miles,—a convincing proof of the accuracy with which the observations had been made. A specimen of the French triangulation is given in the figure below, where the vertical line represents the meridian of Dunkirk, with the distances expressed by intervals of 10,000 toises.



A St Martin du Têrtre.
B Dammartin.
C Pantheon *at Paris.*
D Belle Assise.
E Brie.
F Montlheri.
G Lieursaint.
H Melun.
I Malvoisine.
K Torfou.
L Forêt.
M Chapelle.
N Pithiviers.
O Bois Commun.
P Chatillon.
Q Château-neuf.
R Orleans.
GH *The primary base.*

Calculation of the sides of the Triangles.

			ABC					FIG.	
A	76°	2′	30″.66	17310.3013	F	49°	34′	22″.32	8369.1673
B	57	20	17.82	15017.3211	I	76	47	42.98	10703.5616
C	46	37	11.52	———	G	53	37	54.70	———
			BCD					IGH	
B	59	52	2.20	15756.8013	I	40	36	56.68	6075.8993
C	48	17	[illegible]4.50	13601.3539	G	75	39	29.67	9042.5510
D	71	50	[illegible]3.30	———	H	63	43	53.65	———
			CDE					FIK	
C	37	1	40.59	9516.5896	F	55	10	1.03	7357.8627
D	57	21	1.87	13305.8528	I	43	52	3.25	6212.1595
E	85	37	17.54	———	K	80	57	55.72	———
			CEF					IKL	
C	61	13	47.94	13101.0845	I	53	22	24.93	8349.1059
E	55	51	48.75	12370.8194	K	81	36	49.90	10292.0814
F	62	54	23.31	———	L	45	0	45.17	———
			EFI					ILM	
E	40	32	37.60	8852.8293	I	70	51	37.77	13438.2345
F	45	18	40.41	12374.2130	L	62	47	29.54	12650.5655
I	74	8	41.99	———	M	46	20	52.69	———

	LMN			OPQ	
L	68° 35′ 59″.16	14402.0625	O	62° 31′ 30″.34	10446.5520
M	51 5 13.26	12036.0949	P	93 0 17.27	11758.3955
N	60 18 47.58	———	Q	24 28 12.39	———
	MNO			PQR	
M	31 58 52.87	9190.1355	P	50 28 6.42	12053.9075
N	91 55 5.70	17341.8323	Q	87 35 8.93	15614.7105
O	56 6 1.43	———	R	41 56 44.65	———
	NOP				
N	31 53 2.40	4877.2386			
O	52 33 5.48	7330.6166			
P	95 33 52.12	———			

Through the whole process of their survey, the French astronomers have certainly displayed superior science. In deducing the correct results, they seem to exhaust all the refinements of calculation. The angles measured by the repeating circle, it was necessary to reduce, not only to the horizontal plane, but generally besides to the centre of observation. This would have required much nice and tedious computation; the labour of achieving such reductions was however greatly simplified and abridged, by help of concise *formulæ*, and the application of auxiliary tables. There is even room to suspect that those ingenious philosophers have carried the fondness for numerical operations to an excess, and often pushed the decimal places to a much greater length in their estimates than the nature of the observations themselves could safely warrant.

In the spring of 1799, the registers of all these operations were referred to a commission, consisting of the ablest members of the Institute, and some other learned men deputed from the countries then at peace with France. The various calculations were carefully examined and repeated; and a comparison of the celestial arc with that which had been measured in Peru having given $\frac{1}{334}$ for the oblateness of the earth, the length of the quadrant of the meridian, or the distance of the pole from the equator, was finally determined at 5130740 toises, the ten millionth part of which, or the space of 443.295936 lines forms the *metre*. This standard was afterwards definitively decreed by the Legislative Body.

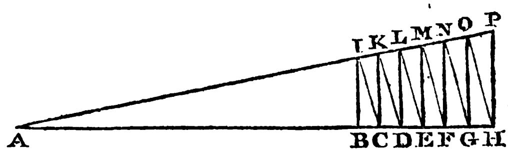
Mechain, however, still anxious to realize his early project of extending the meridian as far as the Balearic Isles, again repaired to Spain, and conducted with incredible exertions a chain of triangles over the savage heights from Barcelona to Tortosa, and was about to observe the altitude of the stars, and measure the base of Oropesa, when, worn out by continued fatigue, he caught an epidemic fever, which fatally closed his meritorious labours, at Castellon de la Plana, in the kingdom of Valentia, about the latter part of September 1805.—The prosecution of the plan was subsequently committed to Biot, who has brought it to a fortunate conclusion. This ardent philosopher, during his stay on the rocky island of Formentera, had likewise an opportunity of making observations and experiments interesting to physical science. In the winter of 1806 and the spring of 1807, he continued the series of triangles from Barcelona to the kingdom of Valentia, and joined that coast with the Balearic Isles, by an immense triangle, of which one of the sides exceeded an hundred miles in length. At such prodigious distances, the stations, however elevated, and notwithstanding the fineness of the climate, could not be seen during the day; but they were rendered visible at night, by combining Argand lamps with powerful reflectors. These observations give a result which agrees almost exactly with what had been already found by Delambre and Mechain. If the mean were adopted, it would yet scarcely affect the length of the *metre* by the diminution of a four millionth part. The meridional arc, extending from Dunkirk to Formentera, measures 12° 22′ 13″.395; and from this ample basis, the circumference of the earth is computed to be 24855.42 English miles.

In England, the prosecution of the trigonometrical survey, without aiming at such splendid views, has, suitably to the genius of the people, been directed to objects of more domestic interest, and perhaps real utility and importance. The perplexing inaccuracy of our best maps and charts had long been the subject of most serious complaint. It was in consequence resolved to extend the series of connected triangles over the whole surface of the island. But the death of General Roy, happening so early as 1790, threatened to prove fatal to the completion of his favourite scheme, and for which the talents and experience he possessed had so eminently fitted him. After some interruption, however, an opportunity was embraced of resuming that

noble plan ; and it was, under the direction of the Board of Ordnance, committed to the care of Colonel Mudge, who, with equal ability and undiminished ardour, has, during the space of now almost twenty years, been engaged in carrying on the most extensive and varied system of operations ever attempted, and in a style of execution which reflects on him the highest credit. In 1793 and 1794, the chain of primary triangles was continued from Shooter's Hill to Dunnose in the Isle of Wight, including a great part of Surrey, Sussex, Hants, Wiltshire and Dorsetshire, and connecting with a new base of verification measured on Salisbury Plain. This base had, after correction, a length of 36574.4 feet, or 6.92697 miles, having lost almost a whole foot in being reduced from an elevation of 588 feet to the level of the sea. It differed scarcely an inch from the computation founded on the base of Hounslow Heath. In 1795, the triangles were carried into Devonshire ; and they were continued in 1796 through Cornwall to the Scilly Islands. The West of England became the scene of repeated operations. In 1798, a third base was measured on King's Sedgemoor near Somerton, and found, after various corrections, to be 27680 feet, or 5.242425 miles, differing only about a foot from the result of the calculation dependent on that of Salisbury Plain. The survey now advanced to the centre of England, and was extended in 1803 to Clifton in Yorkshire; another base of verification, 26342.7 feet in length, having been measured at Misterton Carr, on the north of Lincolnshire. The triangles were next carried towards Wales, and made to rest on a base of 24514.26 feet, stretching from the western borders of Flintshire to Llandulas in Denbighshire. From this last base, numerous triangles have been extended in different directions ; one series bending, through Anglesea and by Cardigan Bay, to the Bristol Channel; another penetrating into the central parts of England; while a third series stretches northwards, through Lancashire, Cumberland and Westmoreland, into Scotland, and uniting with the collateral chain of Misterton Carr from Yorkshire and Northumberland, is prolonged to the heights immediately beyond the Firth of Forth. We look forward with anxiety to the conclusion of this arduous undertaking. The mountains and islands near the western coast of Scotland will furnish triangles of vast extent. Colonel Mudge will not omit, we are confident, the opportunities that such stations may afford to determine the quantity of horizontal refraction,

[illegible] extremely compre[illegible]
[illegible] always rendered denser by th[illegible]
[illegible] To discover the law that conne[illegible]

the densities with the heights in the atmosphere, it is only requisite, therefore, to apply the fact which experiment has established,—that the elasticity counterbalancing the pressure is exactly proportioned to the density. The elasticity of the air at any point of elevation, is hence measured by a column possessing the same uniform density, with a certain constant altitude. Let AB denote the height of this equiponderant column, and the perpendicular BI its density; and suppose the mass of air below to be distinguished into numerous *strata*, having each the same thickness BC. It is evident that the weight of the minute *stratum* at B will be expressed by BC; whence AB is to AC, or BI to CK, as the pressure at B to the augmented pressure at C, and therefore the density at C is denoted by CK.



Again, having joined IC and drawn KD parallel, BI : CK : : BC : CD; and consequently CD will, on the same scale of density, express the weight of the stratum at C. Hence, AC is to CD, as CK to DL, or as the density at C is to that at D. It thus appears, that, repeating this process, the densities BI, CK, DL, &c. of the successive *strata* form a continued geometrical progression. But the same relation will evidently obtain at equal though sensible intervals. Thus, the density of the atmosphere is reduced nearly to one half, for every 3½ miles of perpendicular ascent. At 7 miles in height, the corresponding density is one-fourth; at 10½ miles, one-eighth; and at 14 miles, one-sixteenth.

The difference of altitude between two points in the atmosphere, is hence proportional to the difference of the logarithms of the corresponding densities or vertical pressures. But the heights of mountains may be computed from barometrical measurement to any degree of exactness, by a simple numerical approximation. Since AB, AC, AD, &c. are continued proportionals, it follows that AB : BC : : AB+AC+AD, &c.; BC + CD + DE, &c. or BH. Let n denote the number of sections or *strata* contained in the mass of air, and $\frac{n}{2}$ (AB + AH) will nearly express the *sum of the progression* AB, AC, AD, &c.; wherefore, AB + AH :

BH : : 2AB : *x*BC, or the absolute difference of altitude. The height AB of the equiponderant column, reduced to the temperature of freezing water, is nearly 26,000 feet; and hence this general rule,—*As the sum of the mercurial columns is to their difference, so is the constant number 52,000 to the approximate height.* This number is the more easily remembered, from the division of the year into weeks.

Two corrections depending on the variation of temperature are besides required. Mercury expands about the 5,000th part of its bulk, for each degree of the centigrade scale; and hence the small addition to the upper column will be found, by removing the decimal point four places to the left, and multiplying by twice the difference of the attached thermometers. But the correction afterwards applied to the principal computation is of more consequence. Air has its volume increased by one 250th part, for each degree of heat on the same scale. If therefore the approximate height, having its decimal point shifted back three places, be multiplied by twice the sum of the degrees on the detached thermometers, the product will give the addition to be made.

An example will elucidate the whole process. In August 1775, General Roy observed the barometer on Caernarvon Quay at 30.091 inches, the attached thermometer being 15°.7, and the detached 15°.6 centigrade, while on the Peak of Snowdon the barometer stood at 26.409, the attached thermometer marking 10°.0, and the detached 8°.8. Here, twice the difference of the attached thermometers is 11°.4, which multiplied into .00264 gives .030, for the correction of the upper barometer. Next, 30.091 + 26.439 : 30.091 — 26.439, or 56.530 : 3.652 : : 52000 : 3359. Again, twice the sum of the degrees marked on the detached thermometers is 48.8, which multiplied into 3.359 gives 164; wherefore, the true height of Snowdon above the Quay of Caernarvon is 3359 + 164, or 3533 feet.

This mode of approximation may be deemed sufficiently near, for any heights which occur in this island; but greater accuracy is attained by assuming intermediate measures. To illustrate this, I shall select another example. At the very period when General Roy was making his barometrical observations at home, Sir George Shuckburgh Evelyn found the barometer to stand at 24.167 on the summit of the Mole, an insulated mountain near Geneva, the attach-

ed and detached thermometers indicating 14°.4 and 13°.4, while they marked 16°.3 and 17°.4 at a cabin below and only 672 feet above the lake, the altitude of the barometer at this station being 28.132. Now, $3.8 \times .0024 = .009$, and $24.167 + 009 = 24.176$; the arithmetical mean between which and 28.132 is 26.154; and hence, separately, 50.330 : 1.978 : : 52000 : 2044, and 54.286 : 1.978 : : 52000 : 1895. Wherefore, joining these two parts, $2044 + 1895$, or 3939 expresses the approximate height. The final correction is $61.6 \times 3.939 = 243$, and consequently the Mole has its summit elevated 4854 feet above the lake of Geneva, and 6082 above the level of the sea.

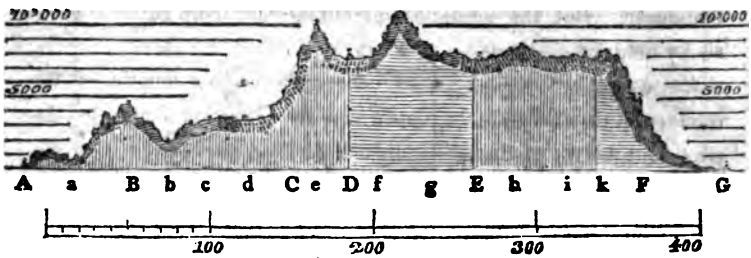
In general, let A and $A + nb$ denote the correct lengths of the columns of mercury at the upper and the lower stations; the approximate height of the mountain will be expressed by

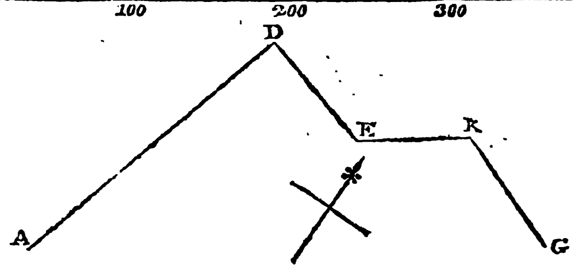
$$\left(\frac{b}{2A+b}+\frac{b}{2A+3b}+\frac{b}{2A+5b}\cdots+\frac{b}{2A+\overline{2n-1}.b}\right) 52000.$$

If n were assumed a large number, the result would approach to the accuracy of a logarithmic computation, though such an extreme degree of precision will be scarcely ever wanted.

To expedite the calculation of heights from barometrical observations, I have now caused Mr Cary, optician in London, to make for sale a sliding-rule, of an easy and commodious construction. That small instrument, which should be accompanied with a barometer of the lightest and most portable kind, will be found very useful to mineralogical travellers who have occasion to explore mountainous tracts. Nothing could tend more to correct our ideas of physical geography, than to have the principal heights in all countries measured, at least with some tolerable degree of precision. But the elevation of any place above the sea may be ascertained very nearly, from the comparison of even very distant barometrical observations, especially during the steadiness of the fine season in the happier climates. In this way, is traced a profile or vertical section, which exhibits at one glance the great features of a country. As a specimen, I have combined and reduced the sections which the celebrated philosophic traveller Humboldt has given of the continent of America, running in a twisted direction from Acapulco to Vera Cruz, and connecting the Pacific with the Atlantic Ocean.

A ACAPULCO:
a Peregrino.
B CHILPANSINGO.
b Mescala.
c Tepecuacuilco.
d Puente de Istla.
C CUERNAVACA.
e La cruz del Marques.
D MEXICO.
f Venta de Chalco.
g St Martin.
E LA PUEBLA DE LOS ANGELES.
h El Pinal.
i Perote.
k Cruz blanca.
F XALAPA.
G VERA CRUZ.





The divided scale expresses the horizontal distance in miles, while the parallels, on a much larger scale, mark the elevation in feet. This profile is really composed of four successive sections, which are distinguished by opposite shadings. The survey proceeded first along the road from Acapulco to Mexico, thence to Puebla de los Angeles, next to Cruz Blanca, and finally to Vera Cruz. These several directions and distances are expressed in the ground plan.

An attempt is likewise made in this profile, to convey some idea of the geological structure of the external crust:

Limestone, is represented by straight lines slightly inclined from the horizontal position.

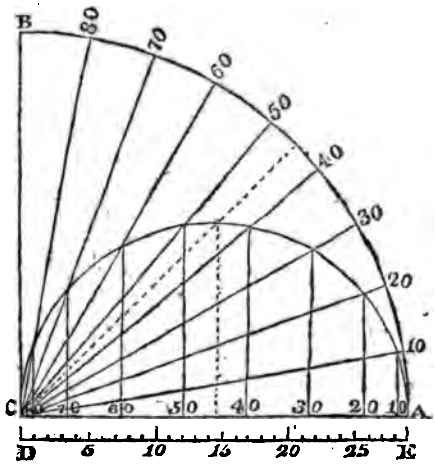
Basalt, by straight lines slightly reclined from the perpendicular.

Porphyry, by waved lines somewhat reclined.

Granite, by confused hatches.

Amygdaloid, by confused points.

But the easiest way of estimating within moderate limits the elevation of a country, is founded on the difference between the standard and the actual mean temperature as indicated by deep wells or copious and shaded springs. Professor Mayer of Göttingen, from a comparison of distant observations on the surface of the globe, proposed a *formula*, which, with a slight modification, appears to exhibit correctly the temperature of any place at the level of the sea. Let φ denote the latitude; and $29 \cos\varphi^2$, or $14\frac{1}{2}$ *suvers* 2φ, will express, in degrees of the centigrade scale, the medium heat on the coast. But the gradations of climate are more easily conceived by help of a geometrical diagram. From the centre C, draw straight lines to the several degrees of the quadrant, and cutting the interior semicircle; then, the radius CA denoting 29°, the perpendiculars from the points of section will intercept segments proportional to the mean temperature expressed on DE.



The higher regions are invariably colder than the plains; and I have been able, after a delicate and patient research, to fix the law which connects the decrease of temperature with the altitude. If B and b denote the barometric pressure at the lower and upper stations; then will $\left(\frac{B}{b} - \frac{b}{B}\right)25$ express, on the centigrade scale, the diminution of heat in ascent. Hence, for any given latitude, that precise point of elevation may be found, at which eternal frost prevails. Put $x = \frac{b}{B}$, and $t =$ the standard temperature; then $\left(\frac{1}{x} - x\right)25 = t$, or $x^2 + .04\,tx = 1$, which quadratic equation being resolved, gives the relative elasticity of the air at the limit of congelation, whence the corresponding height is determined. From these data the following table has been calculated.

Latitude.	Mean temperature at the level of the Sea.		Height of Curve of Congelation Feet	Latitude.	Mean temperature at the level of the Sea.		Height of Curve of Congelation. Feet.
	Centigrade.	Fahrenheit.			Centigrade.	Fahrenheit.	
0°	29°.00	84°.2	15207	46°	13°.99	57°.2	7402
1	28.99	84.2	15203	47	13.49	56.3	7133
2	28.96	84.1	15189	48	12.98	55.4	6865
3	28.92	84.0	15167	49	12.48	54.5	6599
4	28.86	83.9	15135	50	11.98	53.6	6334
5	28.78	83.8	15095	51	11.49	52 7	6070
6	28 68	83.6	15047	52	10.99	51.8	5808
7	28.57	83.4	14989	53	10.50	50.9	5548
8	28.44	83.2	14923	54	10 02	50.0	5290
9	28.29	82.9	14848	55	9.54	49.2	5034
10	28.13	82.6	14764	56	9.07	48.3	4782
11	27.94	82.3	14672	57	8.60	47.5	4534
12	27.75	82.0	14571	58	8.14	46.6	4291
13	27.53	81.6	14463	59	7.69	45.8	4052
14	27.30	81.1	14345	60	7.25	45.0	3818
15	27.06	80.7	14220	61	6.82	44.3	3589
16	26.80	80.2	14087	62	6.39	43.5	3365
17	26.52	79.7	13947	63	5.98	42.8	3145
18	26.23	79.2	13798	64	5.57	42 0	2930
19	25.93	78.7	13642	65	5.18	41.3	2722
20	25.61	78.1	13478	66	4.80	40.6	2520
21	25.28	77.5	13308	67	4.43	40.0	2325
22	24.93	76.9	13131	68	4.07	39.3	2136
23	24.57	76.2	12946	69	3.72	38.7	1953
24	24.20	75.6	12755	70	3.39	38.1	1778
25	23.82	74.9	12557	71	3.07	37.5	1611
26	23.43	74.2	12354	72	2.77	37.0	1451
27	23.02	73.6	12145	73	2.48	36.5	1298
28	22.61	72.7	11930	74	2.20	36.0	1153
29	22.18	71.9	11710	75	1.94	35.5	1016
30	21.75	71.1	11484	76	1.70	35.1	887
31	21.31	70.3	11253	77	1.47	34.6	767
32	20.86	69.5	11018	78	1.25	34.2	656
33	20.40	68.7	10778	79	1.06	33.9	552
34	19.93	67.9	10534	80	.87	33.6	457
35	19.46	67.0	10287	81	.71	33.3	371
36	18.98	66.2	10036	82	.56	33.1	294
37	18.50	65.3	9781	83	.43	32.8	226
38	18.01	64.4	9523	84	.32	32.6	167
39	17.51	63.5	9263	85	.22	32.4	117
40	17.02	62.6	9001	86	.14	32.3	76
41	16.52	61.7	8738	87	.08	32 2	44
42	16.02	60.8	8473	88	.04	32.1	20
43	15.51	59.9	8206	89	.01	32.0	5
44	15.01	59.0	7939	90	.00	32.0	0
45	14.50	58.1	7671				

This table will facilitate the approximation to the altitude of any place, which is inferred either from its mean temperature or its depth below the boundary of perpetual congelation. The decrements of heat at equal ascents are not altogether uniform, but advance more rapidly in the higher regions of the atmosphere. At moderate elevations, however, it will be sufficiently near the truth, to assume the law of equable progression, allowing in this climate one degree of cold by Fahrenheit's scale for every ninety yards of ascent. Thus, the temperatures of the Crawley and Black springs on the ridge of the Pentland hills, were observed by Mr Jardine, where they first issue from the ground, to be 46°.2 and 45°; which, compared with the standard temperature at the same parallel of latitude, would give 567 and 891 feet of elevation above the sea. The real heights found by levelling were respectively 564 and 882; a coincidence most surprising and satisfactory.—This ready mode of estimation claims especially the attention of agriculturists.

The rule stated above for computing the measurements by the barometer, seems to give results somewhat less, on the whole, than those which are obtained from geometrical observations. It would ensure greater accuracy, perhaps, to view the approximate height as answering to a temperature one degree under the point of congelation; and consequently, in applying the last correction, to add unit to the indications of the detached thermometers. But the whole subject demands a more thorough investigation. The elasticity of air is affected by moisture as well as heat, although the want of an exact instrument for measuring the former has hitherto prevented its influence from being distinctly noticed.

When the hygrometer which I have invented shall become better known to the public, it may not seem presumptuous to expect, in due time, more correct *data* concerning the modifications of the atmosphere. Yet, after all, in ascertaining the volume of a fluid subject to incessant fluctuation, it would be preposterous to look for that consummate harmony which belongs exclusively to astronomical science; nor can I help regarding the introduction of some late refinements into the *formulæ* for measuring heights by the barometer, and which would embrace the minutest anomalies of atmospheric pressure,—arising from the influence of centrifugal force, combined with the diminution of gravity in receding from the earth's centre,—as an utter waste of the powers of calculation.

I shall now subjoin a concise table of the most remarkable heights in different parts of the world, expressed in English feet. The altitudes measured by the barometer are marked B, while those derived from geometrical operations, and taken chiefly from the last work of Colonel Mudge, are distinguished by the letter G.

Snæ Fiall Jokul, *on the north-west point of Iceland,* -	4558 G
Hekla, *volcanic mountain in Iceland,* - -	3950 G
Pap of Caithness, - - - -	1929
Ben Nevis, *Inverness-shire,* - - -	4380 B
Cairngorm, *Inverness-shire,* - -	4080 B
Ben Lawers, *Perthshire,* - - -	4015 B
Ben More, *Perthshire,* - - -	3870 B
Schiballien, *Perthshire,* - - -	3281 G
Ben Ledi, *Perthshire,* - - -	3009 B
Ben Lomond, *Stirlingshire,* - -	3240 B
Lomond Hills, east and west, *Fifeshire,* 1466 and	1721 G
Soutra Hill, *on the ridge of Lammer muir,* -	1716 G
Carnethy, *highest point of the Pentland ridge,* -	1700
Tintoc, *Lanarkshire,* - - - -	1720 B
Leadhills, *the house of the Director of the mines,* -	1564
Queensbery Hill, *Dumfries-shire,* - -	2259 G
Dunrigs, *Roxburghshire,* - - -	2408 G
Elden Hills, *near Melrose, Roxburghshire,* -	1364 G
Crif Fell, *near New Abbey in the Stewartry of Kirkcudbright,*	1831 G
Goat Fell, *in the Isle of Arran,* - -	2950 B
Paps of Jura, south and north, *in Argyllshire,* 2359 and	2470
Snea Fell, *in the Isle of Man,* - -	2004 G
Macgillicuddy's Reeks, *county of Kerry,* -	3404
Mourne Mountains, *county of Down,* - -	2500
Helvellyn, *Cumberland,* - - -	3055 G
Skiddaw, *Cumberland,* - - -	3022 G
Saddleback, *Cumberland,* - - -	2787 G
Whernside, *Yorkshire,* - - -	2384 G
Ingleborough, *Yorkshire,* - -	2361 G
Shunnor Fell, *Yorkshire,* - - -	2329 G
Snowdon, *Caernarvonshire,* - -	3571 G
Cader Idris, *Caernarvonshire,* - -	2914 G

Beacons of Brecknock, - - -	2862	G
Plynlimmon, *Cardiganshire*, - -	2463	G
Penmaen Mawr, *Caernarvonshire*, - -	1540	G
Malvern Hills, *Worcestershire*, - -	1444	G
Cawsand Beacon, *Devonshire*, - -	1792	G
Rippin Tor, *Devonshire*, - - -	1549	G
Brocken, *in the Hartz-forest, Hanover*, -	3690	
Schneekopf, *in Silesia*, - - -	4950	
Priel, *in Austria*, - - -	6565	
Peak of Lomnitz, *in the Carpathian ridge*, -	8640	
Mont Blanc, *Switzerland*, - -	15646	G
Village of Chamouni, *below Mont Blanc*, -	3367	G
Jungfrauhorn, *Switzerland*, - -	13730	
St Gothard, *Switzerland*, - -	9075	
Hospice of the Great St Bernard, *on the passage to Italy*,	8040	B
Village of St Pierre, *on the road to Great St Bernard*,	5338	B
Passage of Mont Cenis, - - -	6778	B
Ortler Spitze, *in the Tyrol*, - - -	15430	
Rigiberg, *above the lake of Lucerne*, - -	5408	
Dole, *the highest point of the chain of Jura*, -	5412	B
Mont Perdu, *in the Pyrenées*, - - -	11283	
Loneira, *in the department of the high Alps*, -	14451	
Peak of Arbizon, *in the department of the high Pyrenées*,	8344	
Puy de Dome, *in Auvergne*, - -	5197	
Summit of Vaucluse, *near Avignon*, - -	2150	
Soracte, *near Rome*, - - - - -	2271	G
Monte Velino, *in the kingdom of Naples*, -	8397	G
Mount Vesuvius, *volcanic mountain beside Naples*, -	3978	
Ætna, *volcanic mountain in Sicily*, - -	10963	B
St Angelo, *in the Lipari Islands*, - -	5260	
Top of the Rock of Gibraltar, - -	1439	B
Mount Athos, *in Rumelia*, - -	3353	
Diana's Peak, *in the Island of St Helena*, -	2692	
Peak of Teneriffe, *one of the Canary Islands*, -	12358	B
Ruivo Peak, *the highest point in the Island of Madeira*,	5162	
Table Mountain, *near the Cape of Good Hope*, -	3520	
Chain of Mount Ida, *beyond the plain of Troy*, -	4960	
Chain of Mount Olympus, *in Anatolia*, -	6500	

Italitzkoi, *in the Altaic chain,* - -	10735
Awatsha, *volcanic mountain in Kamtchatka,* -	9600
Taganai, *in the Uralian chain,* - -	4912
The Volcano, *in the Isle of Bourbon,* - -	7680
Ophir, *in the centre of the Island of Sumatra,* -	13842
St Elias, *on the western coast of North America,* -	12672
Chimborazo, *highest summit of the Andes,* -	21440 B
Antisana, *volcanic mountain in the kingdom of Quito,*	19150 B
Cotopaxi, *volcanic mountain in the kingdom of Quito,*	18890 B
Tonguragua, *volcanic mountain, near Riobomba, in Quito,*	16579 B
Rucu de Pichincha, *in the kingdom of Quito,* -	15940 B
Heights of Assuay, *the ancient Peruvian road,* -	15540 B
Peak of Orizaba, *volcanic mountain east from Mexico,*	17390 G
Lake of Toluca, *in the kingdom of Mexico,* -	12195 B
City of Quito, - - -	9560 B
City of Mexico, - - - - -	7476 B
Silla de Caraccas, *part of the chain of Venezuela,*	8640 B
Blue Mountains, *in the Island of Jamaica,* -	7431
Pelée, *in the Island of Martinique,* -	5100
Morne Garou, *in the Island of St Vincent's,* -	5050
Mount Misery, *in the Island of St Christopher's,* -	3711

I shall conclude with briefly stating the French measures. The Parisian foot was to the English, or the *toise* to the fathom, as 1.065777 to 1, or nearly as 16 to 15. The *metre*, or base of the new system, and equal to 39.371 English inches, ascends decimally, forming the *decametre* or *perch*, the *hectometre*, the *kilometre* or *mile*, and the *myriamètre* or *league*, equivalent to 6.213856 of our miles; and descending by the same scale, it forms successively the *decimetre* or *palm*, the *centimetre* or *digit*, and the *millimetre* or *stroke*. The square of the *decametre* constitutes the *are*, and that of the *hectometre*, the *hectare* or *acre*, and equal to 2.47117 English acres. The cube of a *metre*, or 35.3171 feet, forms the unit of solid measure or the *stere*, that of a *decimetre*, or 61.028 inches forming the *litre* or *pint;* and the weight of this bulk of water at its greatest contraction makes the *kilogramme* or *pound*, equivalent to 2.1133 pounds Troy, the *gramme* answering to 15.444 grains.

FINIS.